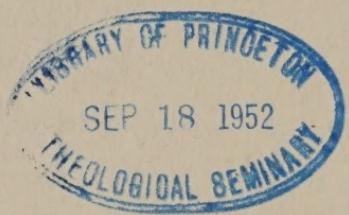


COMMUNITY
ORGANIZATION
FOR
RECREATION



GERALD B. FITZGERALD



GV53

F55

LIBRARY OF PRINCETON
THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY
SEP 18 1952

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR RECREATION

*

*

✓

GERALD B. FITZGERALD

(Assistant Professor and Recreation Consultant, Division of
Recreation, Department of Physical Education and Athletics,
University of Minnesota.)

*

*

A. S. BARNES and COMPANY
New York

COPYRIGHT, 1948, A. S. BARNES AND COMPANY, INCORPORATED

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced in any form, either wholly or in part, for any use whatsoever, including radio presentation, without the written permission of the copyright owner with the exception of a reviewer who may quote brief passages in a review printed in a magazine or newspaper.

Manufactured in the United States of America

To a Yorkshire lass — my wife

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Several of my colleagues and friends have read individual chapters and to them I am very appreciative of the helpful comments and suggestions they have made. To four, however, I am particularly indebted. They are: George Hjelte, General Manager, Department of Recreation and Parks, Los Angeles, who read the entire manuscript and contributed many invaluable suggestions; Lebert H. Weir, Field Representative, National Recreation Association, who reviewed several of the chapters and whose life's work in recreation has been an inspiration to me; Dr. Edwin L. Haislet, Director, Division of Prevention, Minnesota Youth Conservation Commission, who first encouraged me to undertake the writing of this book; and Frank G. McCormick, Director of Physical Education and Athletics, University of Minnesota, whose devotion to the recreation movement has been a source of constant stimulation. Special thanks are also due Dr. Doris W. Plewes, Executive Secretary, Canadian National Council on Physical Fitness, who assisted materially with the section on recreation in Canada.

To those many communities whose problems in recreation it has been my privilege to share and from whom more has been learned than has been contributed in return, I am sincerely grateful.

GERALD B. FITZGERALD

CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
Introduction	9
I. The Concept of Community Recreation	13
II. The Social Setting of Leisure and Recreation	24
III. Community Organization Backgrounds	47
IV. Local Community Organization for Recreation	79
V. State and National Community Organization for Recreation	120
VI. The Schools and Community Organization for Recreation	177
VII. The Local Public Recreation Authority	206
VIII. The Recreation Survey	249
IX. Principles of Community Organization for Recreation	268
X. Community Leadership	282
Appendix : Organization for Recreation in Australia, Canada and Great Britain	323
Index	347

INTRODUCTION

Among the services that a good community provides its constituents is recreation. The purpose of this book is to point out some considerations that should be taken into account by those laymen and professionals who have already or who intend to become active in the recreation affairs of a community. Recreation is as much a concern of the people as of the professional worker. The layman, therefore, shares the stage with the trained leader and his specialized techniques. Acting in the role of individual, group representative, committee member, or agency board member, the private citizen must exert an influence upon the development and conduct of recreation in his community if recreation is to fulfill its promise as a right of the individual in a democratic society.

"Community organization" is a term whose early (and still prevalent in some places and among some people) connotation will not suffice to describe the approach intended here, for this viewpoint is broad enough to include anything that stimulates individuals, groups, agencies and organizations, both public and private, to work together to accomplish a given purpose—in this case a planned provision for recreation. Thus the term "community coordination" will be used frequently. This will allow for all active in meeting community needs; will give full consideration to the responsibilities of citizen groups; and will bring into focus the place of church groups, women's organizations, P.T.A.'s, private agencies, service clubs, civic groups and others without detracting from the importance and responsibility of the public recreation authority. The old-line agencies will be considered along with recent developments in community life that have brought the layman and his group affiliates to a place alongside the organized agency and its professional staff.

Full recognition is given to the fact that community organization is not limited to any specific type of public service or group

need. The purpose here, however, is to discuss the objectives and techniques of community coordination as they may be applied to recreation.

A knowledge of community organization is essential as part of the training of the professional recreation leader. He will be called upon to act not only in community organization for recreation but also in other areas such as child welfare, youth problems, community surveys and housing programs. In such areas the professional will find his training of great benefit; in his primary function—recreation—he will find it indispensable.

Community organization techniques are not necessarily confined to small communities. They function equally as well on a neighborhood basis in large cities and in areas of a rural nature. They may also be applied on all four levels of government—local, county, state and national. The significant consideration involved is to utilize the process of community coordination to achieve a harmonious balance between the structures of governmental bodies and private agencies on the one hand, and the expressed desires of the people on the other hand to the end of using the available resources to meet community needs.

In all parts of the country a growing interest in community organization exists. Some has been brought about by the pressure of problems whose solution has eluded the elected officials and the professional staff members of community agencies. More has emerged, however, as the result of an increasing appreciation on the part of the individual citizen of his right to aid in making decisions and plans that affect the conditions under which he and his family will live. This has led to fuller recognition of the effectiveness of cooperative planning and of the benefits of democratic principles and procedures as applied to community services.

Community organization is not new, but its application to public affairs in many instances is of recent origin. It may be said that many major developments in public recreation have come about with the help of the community organization process, either consciously or unconsciously applied. Today established recreation departments are adopting a philosophy and procedure in community organization, either because the administrator, the staff and board believe in it or because community councils or

coordinating committees have brought them to a cognizance of the expediency of inquiring into its purposes, techniques and benefits.

Three basic assumptions comprise the framework within which this book has been conceived:

1. The acceptance of public responsibility for a recreation service is fundamental to good community organization for recreation.
2. Private agencies and voluntary groups are essential community recreation resources.
3. Laymen must have a place in recreation planning in the community.

With reference to the last point, it is clearly recognized that although large numbers of laymen are active in many aspects of recreation as a community service, neither the public nor the private agency has yet succeeded in bringing to the citizen in general a realization of his responsibilities in this area of community life. The professional and the layman must join hands more resolutely to attain new heights in this important, yes, vital, part of living in all our communities.

It is hoped that this book will be of benefit to both the layman and the professional in recreation.

GERALD B. FITZGERALD
Minneapolis
June 1, 1948

CHAPTER I

The Concept of Community Recreation ~

Local communities have been called "the shock troops of democracy." Indeed they are the level of national life that is closest to the people and the one, therefore, that must carry the burden of making democracy work. In the final analysis each local community must be a good community if the democratic way of life is to achieve what it is capable of attaining. It is important then that a feeling of community consciousness and solidarity permeate the efforts of all those agencies and organizations that seek to provide for their own members and others the means of realizing the benefits and discharging the responsibilities of democratic living. Even more significant is the practical expression of community unison in the nature of voluntary cooperation toward achieving ends that are held to be of common desire.

The worth of a community is to be judged on the basis of the competence of its constituents as members of a free society. The degree of competence in a large measure depends upon the services of a material and personal nature the community organizes for itself and by itself. Adequate opportunities for leisure experiences designed to develop the personality of the individual are a fundamental part of the pattern of life in a good community. Legal considerations may not always render the establishment of such opportunities the free and full right of the local community and it is necessary that state and federal prerogatives be accommodated to its needs in order that the local community may be aided to fulfill its promise as the basic ingredient of a free nation.

Any discussion of community organization for recreation ought to be preceded by a consideration of the meaning of community recreation.

PUBLIC RECREATION AND COMMUNITY RECREATION

There exists a distinct difference between public recreation and community recreation, although public recreation is a part of community recreation. The degree to which the difference is present and recognizable depends upon the stage of development of the many recreation resources of the community. Failure to recognize or to understand the character of each has been a major cause of the absence of effective organization for recreation in many communities. Public recreation is constituted of those services performed by government agencies, while community recreation includes all recreation opportunities existing in the community of a private, voluntary, commercial and public character. Where the public service is the sole opportunity for recreation or where other types of leisure opportunities are not available on a consistent and organized basis, the governmental program may indeed come close to fulfilling both the roles of public and community recreation. But this should not be and usually is not the case. In every community are found varieties of groups, organizations and agencies of one type or another which constitute the organized expression of the interests and aspirations of the people. Many of them have recreation as a primary, secondary or incidental interest.

Public recreation agencies to discharge their proper functions must recognize their place as a part of the community's total leisure resources. Such recognition includes the organization of effective machinery to develop cooperation and coordination among all recreation agencies, groups and organizations in the community. Too often the need for associations of this type has been neglected or not comprehended. The offerings of public recreation agencies do not in any sense consume the major portion of the leisure hours of all the people. The 365 days of the year include 8,760 hours. After time for sleeping, eating, working and family relationships has been deducted there remain approximately 2,500 hours, or about an average of seven per day of free time. A community of ten thousand people has roughly twenty-five million hours of leisure per year. Much of this time is spent in self-directed pursuits that may or may not require use of public recreation resources, and still other portions of it are

devoted to recreation opportunities maintained by community recreation resources other than public. But to deny the need for a strong public recreation service in every community would be to share a view held only by the prejudiced or the misinformed; to fail to recognize the concept of community recreation would be as serious an error.

An excellent statement of what constitutes a community recreation program is the following:

The objective of a community recreation program is to provide opportunities for leisure-time activities for all persons within the population—

This aggregate of leisure-time interests and pursuits is far too great for any single agency within a community to handle. A total community recreation program must represent the sum total of the efforts of many community forces. In general, the agencies concerned can be divided into four groups: (1) agencies supported by tax funds; (2) agencies supported by private funds secured through voluntary contributions; (3) agencies or organizations supported by membership fees or funds from a selected group; and (4) commercial organizations.

All these agencies have a contribution to an inclusive recreation program and have a part in its planning. The structure for such planning may take the form of an over-all recreation planning council or committee which is representative of all groups concerned, including public and private agencies, civic and commercial interests, as well as parents, employers, labor and youth themselves.¹

Expenditures

In large cities privately supported community agencies, such as those financed by community chest funds, often spend in total more on recreation than do public agencies represented by schools, park boards or other public recreation authorities. Approximately one dollar out of every four contributed to community chests is spent on some form of recreation service. One upper midwest community of ten thousand population spends five-sixths of such chest funds for recreation. Private agencies account for a higher

¹ *The Schools and Recreation Services*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, Government Printing Office, 1944, p. 1.

proportion of total community expenditures in the field of leisure time and recreation than in any other major area of community service.² The board of directors of a community chest in a metropolitan area of over one-half million population allocated forty percent of its goal of \$2,430,774 for 1947 to group work and recreation. Of the fifty-six agencies included in this chest nine are settlement houses, ten are group work agencies and seven are community councils. The emphasis in all of them is directed toward recreation, which means that about one-half of the agencies have a primary function in recreation.

A report of 1944 community expenditures for health and welfare, including leisure-time activities, in fourteen urban communities has been made by Community Chests and Councils, Incorporated. The fourteen cities with a combined population of 10,083,000 spent \$273,436,932 or over twenty-seven dollars per capita to provide community health and welfare services of all types. Expenditures of \$18,969,429 or seven percent of the total, or \$1.88 per capita, were recorded by public recreation departments and private group work and leisure-time agencies. Amounts spent by individual cities ranged from \$1.21 to \$3.24 per capita. The section of the report on group work and leisure-time activities states:

Seventy-three cents per capita or 38.7 percent of total expenditures for this field represented costs of operating private group work agencies, such as Y.M.C.A.'s, Y.W.C.A.'s and settlement houses. An additional fifteen cents per capita or 7.9 percent of total expenditures of this field was spent by local groups organized under national programs, such as the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts and Camp Fire Girls.

Activities of public recreation departments, other than camps, represent an expenditure of sixty-seven cents per capita, or thirty-six percent of the total expenditures for the group work field, and expenditures for public and privately operated summer camps amounted to 8.5 percent of total expenditures or sixteen cents per capita.³

² Burns, Allen T. and Bradley, Buell. "How the Chests Spend Their Money." *Survey Mid-monthly*, September, 1941, p. 257.

³ *Expenditures for Community Health and Welfare 1944 Figures*. New York: Community Chests and Councils, Inc., 1945.

Special services of group-work agencies such as the U.S.O. or similar agencies accounted for the remaining 8.9 percent of expenditures. Expenditures by public recreation departments did not reach fifty percent of total community funds spent for group work and leisure-time agencies in any of the fourteen cities. The range of public expenditures was from 8.1 percent to 49.1 percent. Total expenditures for the recreation field as a whole were 35.8 percent higher in 1944 than in 1942. All types of agencies showed an increase, with the private agency gains, which increased from seventy-nine cents to ninety-five cents per capita, being more than those of the public agency which rose from fifty-seven cents to sixty-seven cents per capita. The greatest rise in all expenditures in 1944 over 1942 was in the group work field in which income from community chest sources increased 65.4 percent.

Private Agencies and Voluntary Groups

Private leisure-time agencies do not always hold recreation to be one of their primary functions but are more generally known as character building or youth organizations. Most of them are, in fact, recreation agencies. Wrenn and Harley have offered an explanation for the reluctance of some private agencies to claim recreation as a foremost aim:

When the reader looks about his community with the object of identifying the private agencies and groups of citizens whose expressed purpose is to enable young people to find more and better opportunities for recreation, he should not be discouraged to discover them few in number. The conception of recreation as a normal, enjoyable and important *part* of people's lives, rather than as a *means* of cultivating desirable tendencies, has been so slow in gaining ground that there is almost no private agency which bases its philosophy on it.⁴

Voluntary groups represented by P.T.A.'s, businessmen's organizations, veterans' groups, women's clubs and similar groups are part of the community's recreation resources. Some of them actually sponsor or conduct certain recreation activities for the

⁴ Wrenn, C. Gilbert and Harley, D. L. *Time on Their Hands*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1941, p. 108.

members and their families or young people in general. More often, however, their interest and efforts are directed toward encouraging or stimulating public provision for adequate leisure opportunities. In either case such groups qualify for inclusion in the recreation planning of the community. The number and the extent of operations of private recreation agencies vary considerably according to the size and character of the community. Every locality, however, includes at least a few private agencies and voluntary groups interested in and active in recreation. It is not the purpose here to describe the organization and operation of their programs. There are many sources of information regarding these groups and agencies and some of them are listed at the end of this chapter.

Just as the public recreation authority must not assume that it is the sole leisure force in the community, voluntary groups and private agencies should refrain from attempting to perform functions that are clearly the duty of the public agency or to claim that their services are widespread enough either individually or collectively to obviate the need for a publicly supported program. It is important that they understand the significance of the presence of a public recreation authority in terms of the welfare of all the people in addition to appreciating the benefits that can accrue to the individual private agency or group from a public recreation service. Such an understanding is particularly necessary in communities where private and voluntary agencies have preceded the establishment of a publicly supported program. In more than one community voluntary groups have adopted recreation as their "charity" upon which they spend funds in keeping with the civic purposes of their organizations. But recreation is not an object of charity, and to consider it such is to ignore its true place in the everyday life of the community.

Full opportunity must be provided, nevertheless, for civic groups to pursue their interest in the recreation affairs of the community, provided that the exercise of this right does not handicap the development of a recreation service available to all. In some communities realization of a publicly supported program has been opposed by various groups on the grounds that they already sponsor and conduct a variety of activities and that there is consequently no need to expend tax funds for the same purpose.

Oppositions of this type may usually be dispelled by explaining that to conduct a basic service such as recreation on a plan that calls for various voluntary groups to each sponsor a part of the needed opportunities is the same fallacy as designating the responsibility for essential public services, such as education and police and fire protection, to private interests which are without governmental authority. In general, any and all efforts of non-governmental factors should be over and above, and supplemental to, the assumption of public responsibility for recreation. The characteristics, needs and wishes of the community will determine the pattern of relationships that will be developed among its recreation resources. In keeping with the true spirit of community recreation it is well to observe the principle that recreation is neither the sole responsibility nor the exclusive right of any one community agency.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

For the purpose of establishing an understanding of certain terms to be used frequently in this book it is appropriate that their meanings be recorded at the outset.

Community

A community includes people, geographical territory and common purpose. The people of a community are held together by a psychological bond. They may act together consciously or unconsciously in their chief concerns of life. They create as a result of their common interests certain institutions of a legal, religious, protective, educational, economic and recreational character. A more complete explanation of community would include factors of inter-dependence among people and institutions, a feeling of acceptance and belonging and a sense of usefulness through contributing to the common good.

The community is not necessarily a legal entity. It may vary all the way from face-to-face relationships to the whole "community of mankind." Where the essentials of a community are present it can be identified as existing in the form of a village or small town, a compact neighborhood of an urban territory,

a section of a metropolis or a rural area of a county. Natural, artificial, psychological, religious, racial and economic factors may individually or in combination serve to create or determine the limits of a community and perhaps also to isolate it. Some of these factors may be the cause of conflicts within the community. If the community is not to degenerate into a state of disorganization, more attention must be given to the values and procedures upon which there is general agreement and to efforts for resolving differences of opinion than to perpetuation of the causes of conflict. In a progressive community the people possess an understanding of their problems and a will to organize measures to meet common needs.

There are varied definitions of the term "community." The basic components of each definition relate to human groups, territorial considerations, fundamental needs and activities shared as common experiences, all of which combine in a variety of mixtures to create many distinct patterns each having common marks as well as individual characteristics. The term need not be confined to the individual town or city in the broad concept of community coordination. It may be interpreted to embrace the county, the region, the state and even the nation according to the nature and scope of the community organization process. A good summary of the meaning of community has been given by Hoffer.⁵

Governmental agency

A governmental, or public, agency exists by the will of the people. It is controlled by the people. This type of agency is supported by tax funds and is empowered to adopt certain regulations and procedures which in the main become the laws to which all citizens must adhere. Recreation commissions, park boards and school boards are examples of governmental recreation agencies. Some governmental agencies, for example, municipal hospitals, or publicly owned utilities, may be self-supporting or partially so.

⁵ Hoffer, C. H. "Understanding the Community." *American Journal of Sociology*, January, 1931.

Private agency

A private agency derives its financial support from sources other than tax or public funds and is governed by persons not elected by the people or appointed by representatives chosen by the people, but by individuals designated by boards of control made up of the chief benefactors of the agency or by governing bodies which are self-perpetuating. It is created and controlled by people acting voluntarily and in the exercise of their own prerogatives. Instances can be pointed out where the private agency receives some public funds to help support its activities but they are far in the minority and any public funds received are but a fraction of the total expenditures. In fourteen urban areas in 1944 the percentage of private group work and leisure-time agency support received from public funds amounted to but three-tenths of one percent.⁶

Voluntary groups

Civic, social, labor, fraternal and veterans' groups are all classed as voluntary groups as distinct from private agencies on the basis that they ordinarily do not act as an agency performing services for other than their own constituents who, of course, join the group voluntarily on the grounds of common interest.

Commercial agencies

Commercial agencies are distinguished by the fact that they levy charges for services for the purpose of private profit.

Community recreation resources

All agencies, groups and organizations whether of a public, private, voluntary or commercial nature that perform a function or service in recreation are part of the recreation resources of the community. To them should be added the individuals who exert an effort in behalf of community recreation but who do not profess membership in any community body.

⁶ *Expenditures for Community Health and Welfare 1944 Figures*, p. 9.

Community organization or community coordination

Community organization or community coordination means the development and maintenance of resources both material and human within the community that are necessary to meet the needs of its constituents. It involves cooperation, coordination of present resources and the creation of new ones where needed. It is a process and also a state of existence. As a process it must be continuous. As a state of being it must effectively administer to the needs of the community. It means "finding ways, together, to make what you want with what you have."⁷

Community organization for recreation

Community organization for recreation means the development and maintenance of leadership, facilities and programs or services that will provide optimum recreation opportunities for all the people of a community. It includes relationships among all the recreation resources of the community that will assure co-operation, coordination and community solidarity as a basis for the opportunities. It means developing and maintaining a structure that is designed to present resources to meet needs and to establish new resources if their need is indicated.

Public recreation authority

By this term is meant the governmental agency that is given a definite responsibility related to the governmental recreation service. It might be a recreation commission, park board, school board or other public body.

SUGGESTED READINGS

BOOKS

- Chambers, M. M. *Youth-Serving Organizations*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1948.
Lindeman, Eduard C. *The Community*. New York: Association Press, 1921.

⁷ *The Schools and Community Organization*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, Government Printing Office, 1944, p. 1.

- McIver, R. M. *Society, Its Structure and Changes*. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1936.
- Wrenn, C. Gilbert and Harley, D. L. *Time on Their Hands*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1941.
- Youth Education Today*. Washington, D. C.: Sixteenth Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, 1938.

ARTICLES

- Burns, Allen T. and Bradley, Buell. "How the Chests Spend Their Money." *Survey Midmonthly*, September, 1941.
- Cook, Lloyd A. "The Meaning of Community." *Educational Method*, March, 1939.
- Hoffer, C. H. "Understanding the Community." *American Journal of Sociology*, January, 1931.
- Hurt, W. W. "Relationships with Community Organizations." *Educational Method*, May, 1931.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

- Expenditures for Community Health and Welfare 1944 Figures*. New York: Community Chests and Councils, Inc., 1945.
- Recreation, A Major Community Problem*. New York: National Recreation Association, 1938.
- The Schools and Community Organization*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, Government Printing Office, 1944.
- The Schools and Recreation Services*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, Government Printing Office, 1944.

CHAPTER II

The Social Setting of Leisure and Recreation ~

Social setting is important when considering human needs. To say that times have changed is trite. To realize that times *are changing* is essential to progress. As society advances and societal changes evolve, the need for new services and for the adaptation of old ones becomes apparent. In many instances, however, material progress has far outdistanced the measurable strides and slow cadence of planning and service machinery that has been devised to render ineffective the human ills that always appear when things take precedence over the welfare of people. Social philosophy has been in arrears while material matters affecting society and the conditions in which it exists have exhibited a marked acceleration, at least insofar as their advancement, be it good or bad, is concerned. Attention needs to be focused directly upon discovering means of bridging the all-too-wide gap between material progress and the satisfaction of human needs. A brief consideration of the setting of leisure and recreation in American life will illustrate this point.

EARLY AMERICAN CONCEPTS

Early American concepts which looked upon leisure and recreation as idleness and even sinful were rooted in the needs of the times which called for all energy, time and thought to be directed toward conquering the wilderness and providing the necessities of life in terms of food, shelter, clothing and self-defense. The old Puritanical idea of play as the instrument of the devil still exists in certain quarters, although these pockets of resistance are rapidly disappearing in the onslaught of the recognition of the common need aspect of recreation. In early American life

work was virtue and leisure was viewed as evil. The urgent demands of the day brooked no other thought. In the early years there were few gentlemen of leisure. All desires could not be accommodated in pioneer America and some things had to be abandoned—those which did not contribute in full measure to survival. Thus leisure and recreation were measured on scales which in effect had only one balance side. As a result, leisure and recreation where they did emerge were brought immediately against a defense mechanism in the mind of pioneer America. Leisure became anathema. Recreation was unthinkable. Work, hardship and loneliness were characteristic of life. The former two have been tempered by time, while loneliness still exists today more than is realized—the lot of many people even in the midst of thousands and millions of their fellowmen.

Community celebrations or “bees” were among the earliest forms of recreation to appear. Roof-raising for new settlers, husking bees, barn dances, weddings, church socials, and hunting and fishing constituted man’s first recreation in early America.¹ Show boats along river towns and traveling actors who visited inland settlements brought entertainment to some. Drinking, card playing and other games of chance and theatricals were common in the 1750’s.

The generations following the period of pioneer life gradually gained some leisure. Work was no longer the exclusive activity of all and children had time for play. The rise of cities along the Atlantic coast and the transition of men from working for themselves to working for others gave birth to a leisure class in the North while in the South a planter aristocracy began to appear. The circus, county fairs, horse racing, bicycling, roller skating, baseball, tennis, football and golf all eventually appeared in orderly fashion. The automobile and professional sports were popular entertainments in the early 1900’s. Concentration of people in the confines of large cities as a result of industrial progress from 1870 to 1900 meant the loss of much natural play environment and efforts were made to develop public parks and playgrounds for children.

¹ *Building America*, Vol. 1, No. 7, “Recreation.” Washington, D. C.: Society for Curriculum Study, Inc., National Education Association, April, 1936.

RISE OF PROVISION FOR RECREATION

Before 1900

The expressed desires of laymen and the influence of private community agencies early became a part of the movement to develop public provision for recreation. The sand bins of Boston in 1885 are cited by most writers on recreation history as the beginning of the play movement in the United States. A private group, The Massachusetts Emergency and Hygiene Association, was responsible for the Boston sand piles which were increased progressively until more than a score of play areas of this type were operated in 1899 chiefly on public school grounds.² This period marked the beginning of the use of public school grounds for recreation purposes, although rural schools were used many years earlier for community gatherings, pie and cake suppers, and spelling and sewing bees long before the concept of a social center emerged. Private interests were also responsible for construction of the Charles Bank outdoor gymnasium in Boston shortly after 1885. Public support entered the Boston plan in 1899 when the school authorities contributed several thousand dollars to help support the playgrounds located on school property. Thus from almost the beginning there was a form of community organization—cooperation between a public and a private agency—in the provision for recreation opportunities. At a later period the school authorities took full responsibility for the school play areas and this trend soon spread to other cities including Philadelphia, Providence, Brooklyn and Newark. Educational authorities began to recognize the need for attention to "physical training" but the program had little association with the play interests of children. Organization of the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education in 1885 was stimulated by the Y.M.C.A. and gymnastic societies which influenced the introduction of physical education into the public schools.

Considerable expansion of public parks took place in the last half of the nineteenth century.³ Sacramento, San Francisco

² For an account of this development see: Rainwater, Clarence. *The Play Movement in the United States*, University of Chicago Press, 1921.

³ For an outline of the history of recreation in America see: Weir, L. H. "Historical Background of Recreation in American Life." *Parks and Recreation*, July-August, 1946.

and Salt Lake City already had shown the way by providing large open spaces in town planning. Central Park in New York City was developed in the early 1850's. During the early period of park acquisition and development, however, little thought was given to recreation use. The period 1850 to 1900 brought the beginnings of national parks, Yellowstone being the first in 1872; the first metropolitan park system in Boston; the first county park system in Essex County, New Jersey; and the start of state park systems. The latter part of the nineteenth century also saw the rise of many private organizations and movements active in leisure time. The Y.M.C.A. was established as a national movement in 1851 and settlement houses somewhat later. Libraries and museums, many of them supported and sponsored by private groups, increased in numbers. Many private groups began to interest themselves in play programs for children in congested areas.

1900 to 1948

Upon the petition of citizens the school committee of Boston opened several school halls free of charge in 1888 for a series of public lectures.⁴ Public approval of the use of school facilities for such purposes and additional petitions of citizens led to the opening of several school gymnasiums for community use in 1901. The major early development of the school community center movement, however, took place in Rochester, New York, beginning in 1907 under E. J. Ward. Free public lectures were offered in the schools of New York City in 1890.⁵ Musical and artistical features were sometimes included in the programs which, in the main, were of an academic nature. In 1901 several community recreation centers were established in school houses. They were the antecedent of the school community center plan as it exists in New York today. The lectures and entertainment features begun in 1890 were discontinued in 1929 largely because of the influence of the automobile and the movie on leisure habits of people.

⁴ *Annual Report of the Superintendent*. Boston Public Schools, December, 1935.

⁵ Perry, C. A. *The Extension of Public Education. A Study in the Wider Use of School Buildings*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Bureau of Education, Bul. No. 28, 1915.

Public park authorities in some instances took a prominent part in action leading to provision for year-round recreation shortly after the turn of the century. Such action was not universal, however, for as late as 1916 a member of a national body of park executives was expelled from the group as one whose beliefs were inimical to the best interests of park development and use. This individual advocated an expanded use concept of park purposes as a means of providing recreation facilities for all the people. The concepts of art, and to a lesser extent, of aristocracy, inherited from the park planners of Europe, dominated the early period of public park development in America. Weir has described the typical early American park as kind of an outdoor civic parlor.⁶ The influence of the art concept was responsible for pioneer park botanists and horticulturists working as scientists in a laboratory and viewing the intrusion of people as a highly undesirable nuisance. The aristocratic influence, while not dominant, was responsible for the design of carriage ways as found in European parks. Modern developments have changed the early carriage ways into highways as means of quick access to and from cities, as outer drives having little relationship to park recreation use.

The public park recreation movement gained much stimulus from the erection in 1902 of large field houses in the South Park system of Chicago. A bond issue of \$3,000,000 was used to finance the facilities deemed a necessary acquisition after the school authorities declined to make school houses and properties available for recreation. The field house was an innovation as a recreation facility and it furnished a new standard in park recreation planning, development and operation. By 1905 there were ten community centers in the South Park system. Gymnasiums, swimming pools, meeting halls and club rooms were included. Each center was surrounded by acres of play fields. Other park districts in Chicago followed this example which had significant influence in broadening the concept of park use and in relaxation of rules against use of schools for community recreation purposes. It was many years later, however, before a law was passed permitting Chicago school authorities to levy a special tax to support recreation. Los Angeles erected field houses in public

⁶ Weir, L. H. "Park Recreation." *Recreation*, May, 1931.

parks in 1906 and was the first city to administer recreation under a special playground commission. Oakland followed soon after in adopting the commission plan. California was the first state to use this plan on an extensive basis. In 1906 forty-one cities reported organized recreation services upon which they expended a total of \$904,000. In 1908 a \$1,000,000 bond issue was authorized for slum clearance and playground development in the west end of Cincinnati. Buildings somewhat smaller than those of the Chicago plan were erected. L. H. Weir, who was at that time chief officer of the juvenile court of Cincinnati and Hamilton County, states that the court's cases dropped seventy-five percent during the first year of use of the new recreation facilities which were under the jurisdiction of park authorities.⁷ Other cities, including Minneapolis in 1906, also organized recreation under park boards. The first Recreation Congress sponsored by the National Recreation Association in 1907 was held in Chicago in recognition of that city's contribution to the recreation movement. In later years some cities adopted the school center plan as developed in Boston, New York and Rochester while others followed the park recreation building plan of Chicago and Los Angeles. In 1910, 336 cities reported organized recreation programs. In sixty-two cities they were supported by municipal funds and in eighty-two others partial support was furnished by the municipality.

An example of the historical setting of many municipal recreation departments is afforded by a description of the origin of recreation in St. Louis.⁸ Private enterprise, in the form of a women's club, provided the first playground in St. Louis in 1900. It was located on school grounds and was operated only during the summer vacation period. No paid leaders were employed and no definite program was offered. In the summer of 1901 the number of playgrounds was increased to four, all under the sponsorship of women's groups. This general pattern continued until 1904 when a public bath commission was formed to operate a newly constructed bath house and adjacent playground. In 1907 the first public recreation commission was formed. It assumed control of existing playgrounds operated by private groups on

⁷ In a private communication to the writer.

⁸ Turner, J. A. "Renaissance in St. Louis." *Recreation*, January, 1947.

public property and in addition established four new play areas. The commission was the beginning of the present public recreation department in St. Louis.

The first two decades of the twentieth century while bringing much progress to public agency and to private agency provision for recreation also saw a determined bid by commercial entertainment interests to capture the increasing leisure of the people. The movie and the automobile had the greatest success in this regard and were responsible for developing many poor patterns of leisure-time pursuits. Many privately supported organizations dealing with leisure also appeared during this period. The National Association of Boys' Clubs was founded in 1906; the Y.W.C.A. in 1906; the Boy Scouts of America in 1910; The Girl Scouts and The Camp Fire Girls in 1912. The Rotary Club founded in 1910, the Kiwanis Club in 1915 and the Lions Club in 1917 are examples of civic clubs that took an interest in recreation. World War I accelerated the recreation movement especially as a result of the activities of national organizations and local citizen committees in leisure-time programs for service personnel.

Release of hours for leisure was an accompanying development to the provision of facilities and programs in recreation. In 1840 teamsters, textile workers and machinists worked approximately eighty hours per week, while railroad employees worked seventy hours and weavers toiled eighty-four hours. By 1900 the average weekly hours in industry had been reduced to fifty-seven. From 1890 to 1940 the normal work week was reduced approximately twenty hours. In one hundred years the work week has been reduced from seven days to five days and the work day from fourteen hours and more to eight or less and the trend toward fewer work hours still continues. The forty-hour week was the signal for educators, recreationists and public officials to give increased thought to and provision for extended recreation facilities and programs. In 1929, 945 cities reported recreation systems upon which the sum of \$33,539,805 was expended. The depression period following 1929 brought great strides to the recreation movement through the rapid development of facilities and areas, added leadership, federal assistance, more extensive recreation planning and greater citizen participation in community recreation

problems. World War II continued the expansion of the recreation movement on a nation-wide basis. It brought new techniques of cooperative action; increased citizen participation in planning and in service; recreation opportunities to many who had not previously experienced them; and expression of state responsibility for recreation.

LEISURE AND RECREATION

Eduard C. Lindeman has expressed the opinion that the problem of leisure has become one of the basic considerations of society. To many, increased leisure will simply mean more hours to waste. But time is to be cherished, not dissipated. G. Ott Romney aptly asks the question: "Will more free time represented by the five-day work week and then the four-day period mean that our individual and group culture will be advanced, or does it mean that we shall merely seek additional means to anesthetize ourselves over the prolonged week-end?"⁹ Two general types of leisure may be distinguished: enforced and earned. The first, a false leisure, is not the result of one's contribution to the industry of society. Idleness is not leisure; it usually means "killing," not "living" time. Leisure earned by the individual becomes a true quality, a complement to work. It promises the greatest opportunity for the development of personality and social values. Leisure today is a part of everyday living—a major area of life activity; and it should be guarded as jealously as the right to life, for it is during leisure that one lives.

Leisure is time and recreation is the expression of human interests in free time. Leisure and recreation are not one and the same. Many leisure pursuits through no stretch of the imagination can be considered recreation when viewed in biological, psychological or sociological terms. Vice, gambling and juvenile delinquency, in the main, take place during leisure when people are free to do what they want to do. But they are not recreation. Neither are leisure activities undertaken for ulterior motives, such as advancement in the economic scale, recreation. People

⁹ *Report of Governor's Conference on Recreation*. Minneapolis: Department of Physical Education and Athletics, University of Minnesota, May 9, 1946, p. 13. (Mimeographed)

spend their leisure in a variety of ways but chiefly in the exercise of recreation interests. The relationship between leisure and recreation, therefore, is not one that can be left to chance. Education for leisure plus adequate provision in the community for the practice of recreation skills and interests are mandatory if leisure and recreation are to occupy their true places in respect to each other. Challenging, interesting activities give to leisure a value which intrinsically is not a part of it.

A Modern Concept of Recreation

Recreation is the natural expression during leisure of human interests seeking satisfaction. Early considerations of recreation opportunities confined program offerings to the general area of sports and games and physical activities. Crafts, art and hobbies, followed by music and dramatics gradually came into the sphere of thinking in recreation. Today also included are recreation science, community service, study groups, research and experimentation and all of the many interests pursued in leisure time for the satisfactions derived therefrom. Progress has spread from play programs for children to recreation offerings for adults—for all the people—and to social planning for leisure and recreation. The early, outmoded concepts of recreation, namely, to keep children off the streets and to prevent juvenile delinquency, are no longer advanced as recreation's basic purpose by right thinking people. Education is not built on such premises, nor should a modern system of recreation be so based. Today a more vital, a more complete concept views leisure and recreation as normal parts of the daily life of all individuals. They constitute parts of life that must be prepared for in education and planned for in community service.¹⁰ Recreation must offer opportunity for individual expression and personal development based on creative opportunities that find their roots in the interests, desires and aspirations of the individual person. The expression may take any one of many forms. Recreation interests are legion. The pattern is fashioned from individual interests and pursuits known to produce enjoyment and satisfaction. To some people their means of

¹⁰ "Recreation—A Basic Human Need." *Recreation*, March, 1948.

livelihood is also their recreation. Such persons are fortunate and certainly are in the minority in present technological society. Attitudes toward required duties and chosen occupations are the factors that determine the blending of work and recreation. It is generally, but not entirely, the case that occupations which are accompanied by a feeling of social serviceship are most likely to render indistinct the lines of demarcation between recreation and work. Many who are engaged in occupations that call for creative manual or mental abilities or a combination of both, find recreation in their work. There are also those who view with anticipation leisure hours as an opportunity for increased participation in matters related to their work. Even to these fortunate persons, hobbies and other recreation interests unrelated to work are of importance as means of refreshment and contact with their fellowmen.

The recreation movement in America has fought and won a number of battles in its struggle for recognition. Lindeman enumerates a number of victories.¹¹ Most of the early struggles were centered around sociological and psychological misconceptions of the place of leisure and recreation in group and individual life which ranged from the Puritanical idea of fun as being sinful to the conception of recreation as being a means of "keeping busy." The recognition of leisure as earned opportunity and of recreation as a personal attitude toward life and as a widespread need common to all, is an outcome of decades of endeavor culminating in acceptance of recreation as a community responsibility.

It is well to avoid the fallacy of putting recreation forward as a substitute for economic security or emotional stability. To rank recreation as a social movement is to recognize its relationships to other human needs. That is, recreation must be viewed as part of the whole life. It is essential to understand that the best values in recreation are not attainable unless other basic needs are also satisfied. To accept this thinking is to consider recreation more than just an "escape." This does not deny the mental hygienic values or the therapeutic worth of recreation activities.

The uses people make of their leisure is undeniably a matter of social concern. The right use of leisure is a safeguard of the

¹¹ Lindeman, Eduard C. "Recreation and the Good Life." *Recreation*, December, 1935, p. 431.

integrity of our society. It is difficult to quarrel violently with those who advance recreation as a crusader in the area of delinquency and social maladjustment. But one must be capable of a larger view if the potential values in recreation experiences are to be comprehended. Surely a movement as dynamic as recreation must be of great significance as a means to satisfy basic human needs. A very quick inventory of the world of today will demonstrate that people are starved for leisure experiences. Recreation possesses clearly discernible social values in the opportunities it presents for human associations of a joyous nature. When viewed from this point it becomes an instrument for the formation of personal relationships and the development of cooperative and collaborative habits and joint undertakings. The socializing influences of recreation activities are evident in the sharing of pleasures. The individual has the opportunity to belong to a group, to contribute something to it, to secure benefits in return, and to thus acquire group status and prestige. He finds the group a vehicle for advancement toward security and he comes to express himself through the group. He becomes a factor in social action of the group. He is led to a decline of prejudices and to make the experiences of others meaningful to himself. Recreation is no place for class distinction. It is a proper place for associations of an equalizing nature, of a type likely to break down social barriers and give opportunity for the sharing of life's experiences. It possesses great potentialities for the furtherance of human unison and understanding.

The Essence of Leisure

Leisure represents time; time is opportunity. Leisure represents freedom; freedom allows for choice; and choice is opportunity. Choice, however, is conditioned by education, a sense of values, environment and accessibility of resources. Many definitions of leisure have been offered. The dictionary says it is freedom from necessary occupation or business. Freedom and leisure cannot be separated. Leisure is that time, earned through work, which is available for pursuits freely decided upon by the individual with no ulterior compulsions. Leisure in itself is not necessarily a blessing. Its value depends upon the use to which it is put. It is

capable of elevating or degrading personality; of impoverishing or enriching life. The social order is advanced or retarded according to the uses made of it. The quality of the use of leisure is an ingredient of the level of our society.

The culture of a people is built up mainly during spare time. This is particularly true in present technological environment for it is from leisure the satisfactions once inherent in our work are now secured. People have always had free time but it has varied greatly by classes. The new leisure available to all must be used to produce new forms of expression and of cooperative human relationships. A leading industrialist has said that in his opinion the thirty-hour work week would make the United States a second-rate nation in five years. Presumably the reference was to the effects of the shortened week upon industrial production. The indication is, however, both from the human effort side as represented by labor union demands and from the technological development viewpoint that the thirty-hour work week will become a reality in the measurable future. There appears to be no reason why the thirty-hour week will reduce this country in the ranks of nations. Certainly the advent of the forty-hour week did not reduce its over-all potency. Equal to the concern about what detrimental effect the thirty-hour week might have on industrial production, if such an anxiety can be validly established, is the concern over what effects less hours of work will have on the tone of our society. Cheap and vulgar pursuits are making a strong bid to control leisure as it increasingly becomes available. The paramount question is not whether the present economy is ready to adjust to still shorter hours of work, but rather whether people are equipped educationally to use increased free time to their benefit; and equally as important, to the welfare of mankind.

Factors Affecting Leisure

In the course of America's progress leisure has emerged as a product of the times. There are many factors that have conditioned its place in society. Some of them follow:

1. Technology. The application of science to industry not only has released countless hours of leisure to the individual, but

also has made work less tiring and less satisfying. The cultural values of present day occupations are apparent only in a few professions. The large majority of workers are slaves of machines and operators of mechanical devices which reduce to a minimum the possibility of securing personal satisfactions from a piece of creative work. In much the same fashion leisure pursuits are largely dictated by inventions and scientific developments which endanger the utilization of leisure in place of work as a means of satisfying creative urges. Thus the sources of the new leisure that has come through the years have also brought certain conditions regarding the ways in which the free hours are used. Unless an intelligent choice based on education in the use of leisure is exercised, people will become wards during free time of the machines devised to produce conditions which do not place a premium on manpower.

2. Increase of leisure. The logical outcome of scientific advancements, this factor has not yet proved to be the blessing it promised. Killing time is still a problem to be solved by many. This popular expression connotes ignorance of the value of leisure and of skills and interests to be treasured and nurtured as its partners. What does it profit a man if he gain leisure and thereby suffer the loss of creative satisfactions? Leisure for too many has become a cheap and tawdry thing, not to be respected, but to be feared by some, surrendered by others, and debased by more.

3. Crowded living conditions. America has grown from a half dozen cities in 1790 to 3,444 in 1940. Urban population shifted from three percent in 1790 to fifty-seven percent in 1940. Approximately one of every three persons lives in a city over one hundred thousand population. Today there are fourteen areas of over one million population each with a total of over thirty-three million people.

The social isolation that has accompanied the process of huddling together leaves many cold and alone. Neighborliness is uncommon in large cities. Technical advances such as the automobile have seen to that. Friends are separated by many miles from their neighbors. Family recreation is on a vertical not horizontal level. Each age finds little in common with the others.

Lack of planning for adequate leisure opportunities and recreation facilities in crowded areas has aided and abetted the social ills of delinquency, both adult and juvenile; crime; and personality maladjustments. It has led to the prostitution of the people's leisure by commercialized forms of amusement, by drinking and gambling. It has been to a degree responsible for the growth of cheap and easily accessible forms of commercial entertainment.

4. Ready made pleasures. The automobile, radio, movie and cheap literature all representing easy-to-acquire diversions consume countless free hours. They are the haven of the recreation illiterates, of those who have a poor background of recreation skills and a consequent watery pattern of leisure pursuits. They represent a stronghold for the person who shies away from association with those rich in free-time interests. No danger of experiencing embarrassment or inferiority or insecurity exists in the movie house because all are equal there—one is just as good a sitter as the rest. Before the radio one needs no particular skill; and behind the wheel of an automobile one can go where others go and can join with equanimity the gasoline parade.

Cheap literature becomes a refuge for the lazy mind and the seeker of vicarious adventure. It vies with the movie in appealing to the baser instincts and automatic responses. Together they are a combination of no mean significance.

5. Economic conditions. There is little correlation between the rise of economic income and the advancement of the level of leisure pursuits. A higher standard of living merely means, in general, an intensification of expenditures for free time pursuits already deep in the grain of society. Increased income brings additional revenue to the liquor, movie and gambling interests and to other forms of easily accessible pleasures.

Nor is the public provision for leisure opportunities and recreation facilities of better quality and greater quantity in the lower economic income areas of cities, states and the nation. Many localities where people are least able economically to provide self-directed leisure pursuits are devoid of publicly supported recreation programs and barren of adequate educational opportunities.

Some correlation appears between good patterns of leisure activities and level of educational attainment—not because institutions of learning have provided properly for leisure education and the acquisition of recreation skills, but because self-direction is the mark of an educated person and educational attainment, economic level and favored environment have an affinity, the one for the others.

6. Complexity of modern life. Life today is often a bewildering, confusing process, full of disappointments and disillusionments for many. The stresses and strains of modern life with the consequent breakdown of emotional stability and physical resistance are not to be discounted. A healthy mind and a vigorous body are difficult to achieve and maintain by the mere process of existence. Something more—something special—must be added; something that will provide constant refreshment and sustenance. The leisure area of life activity comes clearly into focus here; for it is most apt to provide the human machine with an opportunity to adjust itself not only for individual benefit but also for the welfare of society.

7. Development of social consciousness. The 1930's brought a number of manifestations of concern for legislation which would establish the principle of public responsibility for general welfare. The federal wage and hour law, work relief programs, unemployment compensation, labor laws, old age assistance and other social security provisions are examples. A new era dawned, calculated to give more consideration to the individual and his rights as a member of the community, state and nation. Human values were given an impetus. This thinking included the right of individuals in a democratic society to earned leisure and to the opportunities for enjoying it.

8. Recognition of man as a creative being. World War II was fought for a way of life and for human values, for the principle that man is a creative being, not a robot to be directed by strong arm methods and false ideologies. The leisure of the people was prostituted in dictator-dominated countries to the ends of those in control of government. The principle that leisure is freedom—freedom to choose, to act, to aspire, to achieve—must never be given up. Man as a creative being must never be challenged or hampered in his leisure by those with

ulterior or sinister motives. The control of leisure choices and recreation activities is to be cherished as a right of the individual, the loss of which provides the first step in the direction of destroying the creativeness of mankind.

Leisure Opportunities For All

The social setting of leisure and recreation today offers an apparent justification for the establishment and maintenance of recreation as a necessary governmental service supported by tax funds. Such action may be justified on the following bases:

1. Recreation has become a common need of the total population, a need which cannot be properly provided for without governmental action. All now possess leisure. When a need becomes widespread enough to affect the total population or large areas of it, the need becomes a fit subject for governmental concern. The unemployment, the illness, the lack of shelter, the hunger or the mental instability of one or of a few are not of sufficient magnitude to call for public action. But when these deficiencies become characteristic of many people the duty of government is clear. The public agency has a responsibility to all. It cannot be exclusive. It must be inclusive and democratic. The offerings of private recreation agencies are strengthened where a basic public recreation service is available to all.

2. Recreation is closely related to the development of the individual as a citizen. Societal conditions must be maintained that will produce the kind of citizen needed in a democracy. Recreation today ranks with education and the proper conduct of community affairs as one of three factors that have a direct bearing on good citizenship. In a democratic society the contribution of all is needed, and recreation is one factor that will aid the individual to arrive at and maintain an optimum social contributory level. Every person who has not reached his maximum in fitness as a member of a democratic society is a partial loss. Multiply such cases by thousands—yes, millions—and the potential loss is a staggering, although not a readily apparent total. Convert this loss into a gain and the effect upon society will be more easily discovered.

Dangers to Leisure

Leisure faces two dangers, both related to misuse, but each possessing an entirely different character from the other. In a democratic society there is danger of individually dissipating free time on pursuits that hold no promise of contributing to personality development. The price of freedom is discipline. The two are not incompatible, rather complementary. Unless free time is disciplined in terms of proper use, the essence of leisure or freedom is lost. The other danger is that common to a state-dominated society, for example, Germany and Italy under Hitler and Mussolini. In those countries the dictators controlled (misused) the leisure of the people to serve the ends of destruction and domination over others. Control of the leisure of the people is a major objective of those who would control the people. In such states a fear of the power of freedom, of the potentialities of leisure, exists. Give a man freedom of leisure and he will become no one's slave. Deny him that, and secure control of his personality. An insight has been gained into the true significance of the relationship between leisure and freedom from the recent war years. A better understanding of the power of leisure has been developed. A means must be perfected to relate leisure and recreation not only to improved opportunities for individual expression and self-development, but also to the welfare of the world.

Control of leisure did not expire with the defeat of dictator-dominated enemy states. In a recent report of a congressional committee on communism much reference to the control in Russia of leisure by the state appears. Russia also applies its leisure controls in those parts of Germany and in its former satellite states under control of the Soviets. It has protested, without success, the coaching of German youth in American sports on the grounds that such activities constitute semi-military training. Russia forbids the existence of Boy Scout troops and similar youth groups in territories it controls. That is exactly what Hitler did. The following is quoted from the congressional report on communism.

The use of the individual's leisure is a matter of primary political concern in the Soviet Union. As a result, leisure has been organized and directed toward special ends to a degree that seems entirely unique. . . .

Leisure time use in the Soviet Union is strictly controlled by the Communist Party. This fact is demonstrated in a number of ways. The amount of time allotted a worker for leisure depends upon the type of work he is engaged in and the quality of his performance. The places he may go in search of rest and recreation are likewise determined for him. The groups within which his leisure activities are performed are organized and activated by Communist Party members. The sports in which he participates are designed to strengthen his physical power and skills for military and for labor purposes. His cultural activities during leisure time are further conditioned by the political control of newspapers and books, plays or movies, and radio programs or musical concerts.¹²

International Aspects

Recreation has a place in the international relations of men as fit subject for inclusion in the platform of the United Nations. Atomic developments, jet-propelled aircraft and other scientific advances have made international recreation practicable and necessary to the successful conduct of human affairs. Leisure and recreation have uncharted possibilities for the achievement of understanding among peoples based on an appreciation of and participation in the leisure experiences, cultural attainments and folklore of one another. Where people are free, where recreation is democratic, the process would appear to depend merely upon leadership, mechanics of administration and scheduling of opportunities, all of which ought to be common-place to the recreation professionals. The professional, however, will have to be trained in the international aspects of recreation, economic and social backgrounds of individual countries, communication, leisure preferences and the recreation institutions of various lands, and methods of directing leisure pursuits toward achievement of their intrinsic human values. Emphasis is not to be put upon activity for activity's sake, although the potential values of international basketball leagues, world-wide sports competition, and a one world music program are not to be denied, but upon the development of a common attitude toward leisure and recreation which

¹² *Communism in Action*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946, p. 117, 125.

will view them as a major means of social intercourse and understanding among nations. Thus the recreation leader of the future will be a statesman of the world, and the profession of recreation will demand the highest type of individual.

Community organization for recreation must be applied on the international level. The layman will continue to be part of that level as he is of all levels of community organization. He, like the professional, must achieve new heights of competence and understanding. Training will assume a more significant role in this respect. Success of world community organization for recreation will depend at least as much upon the layman as upon the professional. Where people are not free, where recreation is not democratic, the process is perhaps doomed to failure, for there is a difference in values; and where such exists there can be little compromise and less common ground. An attitude toward leisure could not be shared for two attitudes exist, one possessed by free people, the other by people of a non-democratic nation.

An additional consideration is related to the international concepts of recreation. The question of survival today is foremost in the minds of people in many lands ravaged by the last war. Rehabilitation in terms of food, clothing, shelter and freedom from fear must precede enjoyment of leisure, for they make it meaningful. Recreation cannot be substituted for other basic human needs, but it must accompany them to provide the good life.

A significant recent development that should further international recreation is the creation by the American Recreation Society of a committee on International Cooperation. This group, appointed in January, 1947, will study means of bringing about effective relationships among nations through recreation. Earlier efforts in this direction were represented by the first International Recreation Congress held in Los Angeles in 1932 under sponsorship of the National Recreation Association. In 1936 a second meeting of this type was held in Hamburg, Germany, but the United States was not officially represented. Note that H.R. 5723, a bill to create a federal recreation service, sponsored by the American Recreation Society and introduced in Congress on March 5, 1948, includes authorization "to participate in the development of recreation policies and plans designed to cultivate understanding and good will between and among nations."

Fallacies to Avoid

Experience indicates certain fallacies which must be avoided by community organizers for recreation if their efforts are to be successful. They are:

1. That provision for recreation activities should be confined to children. Neither leisure nor the play instinct respects age. Play needs of children will best be met if offered as part of a comprehensive community recreation program for all groups in all seasons of the year. In its true essence recreation is a means of satisfying certain basic human needs. These needs are not restricted to childhood. Opportunities must be available in the community for the continued practice of good recreation habits.
2. That recreation is essentially a program of physical activities. To deny the widespread interest in and values from sports and games would be futile. Their millions of adherents speak for themselves. More funds, facilities and leadership are devoted by organized recreation systems to sports and games than to any other single recreation interest. Such devotion should be neither discouraged nor lessened. It should be increased. To mistake the part for the whole, however, is an error of too common occurrence. Large sections of the population possess other interests of the same intensification and fervor, and they must be adequately provided for if the recreation opportunities offered are to constitute a valid program. The time is past when recreation administrators, staffs and board members, regardless of the size of the community, can utilize the promotion of a physical activities program only as a defense mechanism for their ignorance of the ways and means to build a series of recreation offerings that gives sufficient thought to the leisure interests of all the people in the community.
3. That a summer recreation program alone is sufficient to insure necessary leisure-time opportunities. Recreation interests and free hours are not limited to summer months. A recreation program must be related to all seasons of the year just as it must embrace a variety of interests.

Recreation Program

Weir points out that a recreation program of value in promoting individual happiness and growth must be based on fundamental human intensity, urges, impulses and desires.¹³ Among them are the physical activity urge, very strong in children and youth, but weaker as age advances; the creative or constructive interest, expressed by a desire to make things with the hands; the communicative interest, which accounts for spoken and written contacts among people; the learning urge, responsible for lifelong interest in new experiences; the art urge, a means of expressing individual conceptions of beauty and form; the social impulse, which leads people to associations with fellowmen; and the religious instinct, which brings people to realization of moral codes and of the existence of power greater than themselves.

SUGGESTED READINGS

Books

- Adams, James Truslow. *The Epic of America*. New York: Blue Ribbon Books, Inc., 1931.
- Burns, C. Delisle. *Leisure in the Modern World*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1932.
- Butler, George D. *Introduction to Community Recreation*. New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1948.
- Meyer, Harold D. and Brightbill, Charles K. *Community Recreation*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1948.
- Mitchell, Elmer D. and Mason, Bernard S. *The Theory of Play*. New York: A. S. Barnes Co., 1948.
- Neumeyer, Martin H. and Neumeyer, Esther. *Leisure and Recreation*. New York: A. S. Barnes Co., 1936.
- Overstreet, Harry A. *A Guide to Civilized Leisure*. New York: W. W. Norton Co., 1934.
- Rainwater, Clarence. *The Play Movement in the United States*. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1921.
- Romney, G. Ott. *Off The Job Living*. New York: A. S. Barnes Co., 1945.
- Slavson, S. R. *Recreation and the Total Personality*. New York: Association Press, 1946.

¹³ *Public Recreation*, Gary, Indiana. Gary: Park Department, February, 1946, p. 30.

- Steiner, Jesse F. *Americans at Play*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933.
- Watson, Goodwin. *Youth After Conflict*. New York: Association Press, 1947.
- Yu-t'ang, Lin. *The Importance of Living*. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, 1937.

ARTICLES

- Brown, V. K. "Membership's Thought on International Proposals Urged." *American Recreation Society Quarterly Bulletin*, October, 1947.
- Buttenheim, Harold S. and Candler, Martha. "Public Recreation Viewed From the Half-Way Mark." *Recreation*, May, 1931.
- Hjelte, George. "Recreation and World Peace." *Youth Leaders Digest*, January, 1948.
- Lindeman, Eduard C. "Recreation and the Good Life." *Recreation*, December, 1935.
- "The Dynamics of Recreational Theory." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1948.
- Nash, Jay B. "A Philosophy of Recreation in America." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1948.
- Neumeyer, Martin H. "Recreation and Delinquency." *Community Organization For Youth Services*, June, 1946.
- "Recreation—A Basic Human Need." *Recreation*, March, 1948.
- Solomon, Ben. "Recreation and Delinquency." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1948.
- "The Amusement Industry." *Recreation*, February, 1938.
- Turner, J. A. "Renaissance in St. Louis." *Recreation*, January, 1947.
- Weir, L. H. "Historical Background of Recreation in American Life." *Parks and Recreation*, July-August, 1946.
- "Park Recreation." *Recreation*, May, 1931.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

- Building America*. Vol. I, No. 7, "Recreation." Washington, D. C.: Society for Curriculum Study, Inc., National Education Association, April, 1936.
- Communism in Action*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1946.
- Gates, Sherwood. *The Stake of Government in the Recreation of All the People*. Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Office of Community War Services, Recreation Division, Government Printing Office, 1945.

- Lindeman, Eduard C. *Leisure—A National Issue*. New York: Association Press, 1939.
- Our Cities, Their Role in the National Economy*. Washington, D. C.: National Resources Committee, Government Printing Office, 1937.
- Perry, C. A. *New York School Community Centers and Their Community Policy*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1931.
- Population Problems*. Washington, D. C.: National Resources Committee, Government Printing Office, 1938.
- Recreation, A National Economic Asset*. Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Office of Community War Services, Recreation Division, Government Printing Office, 1945.
- Report of Governor's Conference on Recreation*. Minneapolis: Department of Physical Education and Athletics, University of Minnesota, May 9, 1946.
- Technological Trends and National Policy*. Washington, D. C.: National Resources Committee, Government Printing Office, 1937.
- Weinberger, Julius. *Economic Aspects of Recreation*. New York: Radio Corporation of America, 1937.

CHAPTER III

Community Organization Backgrounds ~

Interest of individuals and groups in the common welfare of their community is deep in the history of man. The roots of American public assistance philosophy and procedure, which had effects on early efforts in community organization, are to be found in English poor law history.¹ English feudalism of the tenth century obviated any widespread need for assistance to the individual. The serf was bound to the soil, which was his right, and he could not move about. Monasteries aided travelers and those in need. At the time of the Crusades lords were gone from the land and feudalism broke down. The rise of trade and commerce brought the birth of cities. People became unattached and mobile. Old securities disappeared. In 1348 the Black Death brought the need for assistance to the foreground. Labor was in demand and migrated toward the best wage. In 1349 the English statute of laborers was passed which demanded that the laborer work at his regular wage and in the place he was accustomed to toil. The penalty for non-conformance was jail and no alms. The laws of King Richard II in 1388 recognized for the first time those legitimately in need. Indigents were forbidden to move about on the penalty of loss of aid. The local community was expected to provide for its own and no public funds were appropriated.

Many other laws followed in succeeding centuries, most of which recognized the responsibility of government to safeguard the health and welfare of people. The English poor laws of 1601 and 1834 were landmarks in social history. The first factory act of 1802 and the public health act of 1848 served to correct many conditions relating to the welfare of human beings. The year

¹ For an outline of the history of social welfare in England see Newman, Sir George. *English Social Services*. London: William Collins, 1941.

1870 brought national provision for education. In 1906 laws were passed providing for school feeding and medical supervision. Physical training was introduced in the schools in 1907, and thirty years later a national physical training and recreation act was adopted. Workmen's compensation was first adopted in 1897. In 1900 the English national employment exchange was created. In 1905 the royal commission earlier appointed to investigate public assistance laws and need reported with a recommendation for centralized public welfare administration. Old age pensions were adopted in 1908, patterned somewhat after the plan introduced in New Zealand in 1898. In 1911 a national unemployment insurance plan was adopted. Many additional welfare laws and improvements in existing laws were adopted in later years. By 1935 the sum of two hundred million dollars was being spent on public social services benefiting some thirty-five million people. The Education Act of 1944 is one of the most recent significant provisions for the welfare of the English people. A discussion of organization of recreation in Great Britain will be found in the Appendix.

TRACING THE MOVEMENT

The charity organization movement began in America in the 1870's. It represented an organization of community forces to meet individual needs. From 1877 to 1887 Buffalo, New York City, New Haven, Boston, and Philadelphia formed charity organization societies to prevent duplication and to develop city-wide plans for social welfare. The National Conference of Social Work, founded in 1874, was one of the first moves on the part of professional people in the direction of central planning. In 1905 and subsequent years came the establishment of a number of organizations for the grouping of agencies having similar functions. Juvenile courts were established in 1889; the National Tuberculosis Association in 1901; the Playground and Recreation Association of America in 1906; the National Probation Association in 1907; the Family Welfare Association in 1911; the National Federation of Settlements in 1911; the Federal Children's Bureau in 1912; the Big Brothers and the Big Sisters Federations in 1917; and the Child Welfare League of America

in 1920. The purpose of these groups was to raise standards of service and develop broad policies relating to objectives on a national scale.

Rural Community Organizations

Movements having significant influence on various aspects of rural community organization were headed by the Grange which was established in 1867 as a rural fraternal organization seeking to develop cooperation among farmers and to improve the life of rural areas. The Grange today is the largest organization for farmers in America. Purposes of the Grange include programs for recreation of its members. Young people are urged to take an active part in the organization and activities are designed to appeal to them. Although the Grange expresses much interest in the economic life of rural people, from the beginning it has had an important influence in other areas of rural community life. The Farmers' Union, organized in 1912, has two special divisions: Farmers' Union Juniors for young people sixteen to twenty-one years of age and Junior Reserves for those twelve to sixteen years. Its extensive program for youth stresses development of rural culture through recreation. The Farm Bureau Federation is in effect a development of the extension program of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. About one-half of its members are under twenty-five years of age. Organized under the county farm bureaus, 4-H Clubs today enroll almost two million young people. This program places its emphasis on social life, recreation and community service.

Distinct Periods

Following the charity organization movement which was the beginning of community organization and which was characterized by cooperation between social agencies, community programs of settlements, and the rise of state and national agencies and groups; the second period was related to World War I and community mobilization for emergency purposes. The third period saw the development and growth of community chests, social service exchanges and councils of social agencies. In the

1920's these organizations exerted a major influence on community organization. The fourth period brought the rise of government welfare programs following the financial disaster of 1929. During the 1930's these programs were a significant factor in community organization. Much reorganization of public welfare and some realignment of private social agencies also took place at this time in order to meet new and widespread needs. The fifth period, related to World War II, was notable for its techniques of agency cooperation, citizen mobilization and community council development. The sixth, present post-war, period has continued many of the cooperative enterprises begun during the war and has expanded the neighborhood and community council plan on a peace time basis. It has also brought expanded professional opportunities in community organization, professional guidance to local lay councils, new thoughts on coordination between city planning and health and welfare planning, and state and national coordination and services in many areas of community organization.

The work of the study committee of the community organization section of the National Conference of Social Work in 1939 began a new emphasis on the generic aspects of community organization. This stress has carried through subsequent meetings of the Conference and has resulted in the creation in May, 1946, of a national group for the continuous study of community organization philosophy, principles and techniques. This body is called the Association for the Study of Community Organization, with national offices in Detroit.

NATURE OF COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

Before proceeding to a further discussion of the backgrounds of community organization it may be well to consider its nature and what it seeks to achieve. Community organization is related to both human and material resources and to the mobilization of all social forces to meet apparent or discovered needs. It is concerned not only with the determination of need but also with maintenance of community services.²

² *The Community Approach to Juvenile Delinquency*. New York: National Probation Association, Yearbook, 1936, p. 26.

The distinction between community organization as an end and as a process needs clarification. Community organization is essentially a process. Community organization for child welfare, housing, recreation or other needs is, therefore, a progressive act or series of acts to reach an end rather than the end itself, although the term is sometimes used to denote both. The process should result in the attainment of an adequate level of service in the field to which it is applied. It involves an approach through group organization and group action for the purpose of coordinating agencies, services, actions, and resources, both human and material, that will result in the creation of a plan to produce a combination of the adaptation of present resources and the creation of new ones, if need be, to meet the need as defined. Thus community organization is not static, nor is it the program of an agency or a group of agencies. It is recognized, however, that within the confines of an agency service the process may be and often is applied. But the program or service is not the process—it should be the result of the process consciously applied.

Community organization can be temporary or permanent depending on the nature of the problem to which it is related. For example, a recent epidemic of poliomyelitis in a large city brought forth many efforts from agencies, groups and individuals ready and willing to act in the public interest and in the care of those stricken. The objective at once became a means of setting up ways for the efforts to find expression. The process of community organization to achieve a program of action was applied, the emergency was met, the need disappeared, the process disintegrated. Its purpose had been achieved. A procedure followed represented a permanent step in that a framework was set up to better meet any future similar threats to public safety. The effectiveness of the framework in combating future dangers as they appear will be contingent upon the adaptation of the community organization process to the conditions at any given time. Community organization must also be a continuing process in many areas of community life in order to provide a vehicle of expression for those who desire to contribute to community betterment. This is particularly true in fields of social service that are of a permanent nature changing only with the times.

Faulty Thinking

In the past many have considered agency coordination, with professionals in the limelight, the most efficient and swiftest path to community organization. This fallacious theory is not consistent with the purpose of community coordination. It attempts to substitute the part for the whole. Furthermore, unless the agency and the professional are products of community needs, and not merely superimposed structures, they are hardly in a position to fulfill their own function in community organization, much less represent the total process. The danger of treating a problem within a confined area of thinking that denies the inter-dependence of problems and treats each as if it were independent of other aspects of community life accompanies this theory. Inclusiveness rather than exclusiveness should be applied to the factors that condition a community need just as it is to be observed in the consideration of organizations, groups and individuals that ought to be concerned with the need itself. Inclusiveness is also a factor to be reckoned with in terms of proper placement of the community's needs in the light of political, economic, social, industrial and international influences that affect the community.

Other observations may be added. A fallacy, for example, calls for the formation of new organizations as the best means to meet new problems as they arise. Consequent neglect to use existing resources to their full capacity is an outcome to be deplored. The initial step to be taken involves not so much the creation of new and additional resources as it does the rallying of present ones around the need. It means creating a vehicle for coordinated planning and action big enough to hold all whose services and thinking are needed; flexible enough to provide for primary and secondary efforts; fast enough to meet the problems before they are too far advanced; and efficient enough to judiciously blend the efforts of independent groups and persons into a pattern of progressive action that accomplishes the desired results without violating the rights of the separate organizations or the integrity of individuals.

Those who feel that a service becomes a sole right of an individual agency commit another error in community organiza-

tion. This view is responsible for the crime of institutionalism, for jealously guarded boundaries, and for the interests of agencies being placed before the concern for people. 'In a democratic society many groups and organizations arise to serve in various areas of human need. Some of them are active in more than one field of social service, having in addition to a primary function, secondary and incidental functions in fields kindred to their basic purposes. A place must be provided for all pertinent interests in the community organization process, if it is actually to be what it purports to be.'

Purpose and Outcomes

The purpose or aim of community coordination, however it may be defined, includes the following elements:

1. Determining the need as it exists in a community
2. Discovering and correlating the community's resources—professional, lay, public, private, agency, group, and individual—that have or should have a function or interest related to the need
3. Determining the necessity for additional or new resources, temporary or permanent
4. Locating the setting of the need with reference to other needs of the community
5. Formulating a plan of action to eliminate or relieve the need and to produce a competent service in the area of the need

The report of the drafting committee on the project for discussion of community organization of the National Conference of Social Work in 1939 stressed the adjustment of social welfare resources to meet social needs as the basic purpose of community organization.³ It also suggested that coordination of resources must be a continuous procedure allowing for readjustments to meet changing needs.

Purposes of community organization as outlined by the Pittsburgh Emergency Council in 1931 and later adopted by the community organization section of the California Conference of Social Work in 1939 are to discover and correlate existing

³ *Proceedings National Conference Social Work*, 1939, p. 495.

resources, to estimate the existing need, and to consider and recommend future action necessary to meet the needs.

Other purposes of community coordination have been stated as follows:

1. To promote cooperation among organizations and citizens interested in making the community a more wholesome place in which to live
2. To foster coordination of efforts of the foregoing organizations and individuals in order to meet the needs of the community more effectively
3. To sponsor the study of resources, conditions, needs
4. To advance the education of the general public regarding conditions to be improved
5. To secure democratic action in meeting local needs through existing agencies, organization and institutions⁴

General agreement is apparent on two major aims or purposes of community organization: stress upon participation of the community in meeting community needs; better coordination of social services. The latter does not put emphasis so much on the avoidance of duplication as it does on the need for filling the gaps that exist in present services.

What of the outcomes or benefits of good community organization? Some are to be implied in its aims and purposes: participation of the community in its own affairs; better services by established agencies; solving community needs; and a more efficient pattern of relationships among groups, individuals and agencies. Other specific dividends or outcomes follow:

1. Community needs take precedence over institutional programs.
2. The individual becomes a factor in the community organization process.
3. A pattern is established that can function in future community problems.
4. Community resources are more efficiently utilized.
5. Leadership is discovered, developed and utilized to a greater degree.

⁴ *A Guide to Community Coordination*. Los Angeles: Coordinating Councils, Inc., 1941, p. 2.

6. The community is brought to a realization of what a good pattern of service is in the various fields of social welfare.
7. The gaps in services, facilities and leadership tend to disappear.
8. A consciousness of community solidarity and its possibilities in terms of effective action emerges.
9. Agencies secure a better understanding of what others are doing and of their place in the total community pattern.
10. The importance of continuity in the community organization process becomes apparent.
11. Methods are developed that can be used in future community action to meet widespread needs.
12. Individual organizations and agencies are stimulated to self-study and means of improvement.
13. A realization is gained of the wholeness of the community and the inter-relationships of its needs.
14. Conflicts in the community are resolved by people becoming acquainted through working together on a common problem.
15. The value of the community organization process as an educational procedure becomes apparent.

EARLY COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR RECREATION

A full discussion of patterns of community organization for recreation will be found in Chapters IV and V. The purpose here is to trace the historical rise of community organization in its relation to recreation.

The Settlement House

The settlement house movement in England following the industrial revolution represents the beginning of the relationship between community organization and recreation, although recreation was not the basic purpose of the settlement. Toynbee Hall founded in London early in 1885, and still in operation today, was the result of the interest of a few Oxford and Cambridge university students guided by Reverend Barnett of St. Jule's, Whitehall, London. They were inspired by his paper, "Settlement

of University Men in Great Towns," read at Cambridge in November, 1883. Toynbee Hall's purpose was to relieve the plight of the poor. Two additional settlements, Oxford House and the Women's University Settlement, appeared in other parts of London in 1885 following the establishment of Toynbee Hall and by 1900 there were thirty-three in existence in England. In 1887 Dr. Stanton Colt inaugurated the settlement idea in America and established the Neighborhood Guild in New York. Jane Addams and Ellen Gates Starr opened Hull House in Chicago in 1889. Several others followed in Chicago in the 1890's.

The settlement house was concerned with many problems of the people whom it served. It brought them a means of attacking their needs and a rallying point of community solidarity. It had significant influence on community councils, particularly those built on the neighborhood theme. Its purpose was to help people to find means of meeting their needs. It pioneered in fields which today are considered proper areas of governmental concern. Recreation is one of these, and today it still remains as one of the elements of the settlement. Manual training, kindergartens, playgrounds, adult education, recreation and nursing service were some of the fields into which the settlement early entered and which later became public services. The shift of nationalities, emergence of new social needs and other developments have caused settlements to change their character more than once in their history; to move from one to another neighborhood; or to close entirely. Rise of centralized agencies and increased ease of transportation have been other factors in the changing settlement scene, but it still remains in many communities an important point of solidarity.

Settlement house philosophy with its emphasis on aiding local communities to solve their own problems had much influence on early community organization through coordinating councils, neighborhood surveys, and city-wide action through federations of settlements. The nature of the settlement movement confined it almost entirely to large cities of over one hundred thousand population. The National Federation of Settlements, organized in 1911, had 156 members in 1919; 160 in 1930; 155 in 1940; and 163 in 1944 located in fifty-five cities in twenty-seven states.

In 1946 the Federation had 205 settlements and neighborhood houses in its membership, most of them located in industrial areas throughout the country.⁵

The Community Center Movement

Following the settlements the community center movement made distinct contributions to early community organization for recreation. The movement was related chiefly to school community centers and to a lesser degree to recreation center buildings developed by public recreation authorities. Public recreation leaders, social workers and community-minded individuals and groups combined to urge the use of school grounds, buildings and equipment to serve the community when not in use for school purposes. The interest of community members in this matter was evident in the opening of Boston school halls upon the petitions of citizens in 1888, and in the Rochester experiment of 1907 when representatives of eleven organizations in the city formed a school extension committee. Emphasis in the latter city was placed on participation by the community in directing affairs of the centers. In Wisconsin in 1910 school centers were greatly advanced through state legislation. The University of Wisconsin to further the movement organized in that year a social and civic center development bureau as a part of its extension program.

As early as 1897 the wider use of school facilities was urged by Aaron Gove at the annual meeting of the National Education Association. John Dewey at the 1902 meeting strongly advocated the community use of schools. At the 1903 meeting Charles W. Elliot requested use of schools on a year-round basis and for twelve hours a day. In 1911 the National Education Association, meeting in San Francisco, passed a resolution approving the larger use of schools for recreation, civic, cooperative and cultural purposes. Its proceedings of 1912 included five papers on the subject, most of them related to recreation opportunities for the entire community. In 1918, meeting in Pittsburgh, the National Education Association organized a department on the wider use of school houses.

⁵ "National Federation of Settlements." *Social Work Yearbook*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947.

On October 25, 1911, the first national conference of civic and social center development convened at the University of Wisconsin for a three-day session. It was addressed by Woodrow Wilson. The second national conference held in Chicago in 1917, was attended by over five hundred, and the third conference in Pittsburgh in 1918 attracted 504. C. A. Perry writing in conjunction with the first meeting described ten years of community center development.⁶ He pointed out that the center idea had spread but not so rapidly as had been expected; that eradication of political corruption was felt to be one purpose of the community center; that spontaneous centers supported by neighborhood associations and private funds had developed more than tax supported ones for the reason that a municipally financed staff in every neighborhood could constitute a political potentiality and thus no important political party was willing to take the risk of having it for a possible political enemy; that major activities were recreation, adult education, neighborhood civic life and community services; that centers were schoolhouses, churches, private halls, public park buildings and branch libraries; that expansion was due mainly to increased hospitality on the part of municipal institutions having suitable facilities and to specialized promotion by national and voluntary associations; that the schools were becoming more hospitable to neighborhood life; that specialization in the organization of community leisure was possible as a result of the hospitality factor which provided places for meetings of special interest groups; that activities in recreation were becoming more diversified; that national agency programs having no local facilities were aided greatly by being able to use municipal facilities; that civic discussion groups expanded to include collective bargaining, free school texts and other subjects; and that some 300 community buildings, mostly in prosperous and homogeneous localities, were erected between 1906 and 1911, but that in most communities duplication and financial loss were prevalent due to the building of several structures where one constructed for multiple use might suffice. Perry concluded that so long as the community organization problems remained unsolved and a community cooperating mechanism

⁶ "Ten Years of the Community Center Movement." *The Community Center*, July-August, 1921.

remained unestablished duplication and economic loss would continue. The period 1900 to 1925 brought great strides to the school center movement. By 1927 thirty-two states had expressly provided by law for use of school buildings as community centers. The U. S. Bureau of Education by 1928 had completed three separate studies on the school center movement.⁷ Thus the community center came to be a factor in community organization. In rural and small communities it was more of a unifying force than in large cities; but this is true of many social movements and is related to the nature of rural and of urban life. It implies that the methods and agencies employed in the community organization process must be varied and must take into account the nature of the community.

RECREATION AND THE FIRST WORLD WAR

National Community Center Association

An organization which had significant influence on community organization in World War I was the National Community Center Association organized in New York in 1916. The Association first published *The Community Center* on February 3, 1917, as a bulletin on community centers and related problems published in the interests of community centers everywhere. The publication appeared monthly through February, 1918, and then bi-monthly until September, 1918, after which it was published every three months with the final edition appearing in December, 1924. The Association had committees on administration, night schools, day schools, high schools, rural centers, city planning, social work and recreation among others. *The Community Center* devoted much of its space to community center activities related to national unity, community solidarity and other developments concerned with civilian mobilization during the first World War. Individual issues were devoted to consideration of such items as health conditions in the community; immigration; organization of community national service in the public schools; use of school centers as a means of developing defense matters in the local

⁷ See Perry and Glueck in suggested readings at end of chapter.

communities; food conservation; and recreation. As the war passed into history, the publication devoted more attention to matters of a general educational and leisure-time interest.

The *Community Center* issue of June, 1917, was a special defense number. It pointed out that the school as a community center could serve no better purpose than to provide a community meeting place; that it could be a primary means of providing activities which would offer citizens an opportunity for service; and that it afforded a building where actual work of a detailed character could be performed.

In *The Community Center* issue of November, 1917, it was pointed out that Dr. John H. Finley, State Commissioner of Education, New York wrote to 65,000 school teachers stating that: "(1) The school is first of all for that mental and moral training essential to the maintenance of democracy; (2) the school is a center for physical training and health education for every boy and girl; (3) it is a center for Red Cross activities; (4) it is a center for accurate information about the war." The January, 1918, issue pertained to the programs being operated in 280,000 war service centers: 60,000 city schools and 220,000 rural centers. It was estimated that five hundred thousand community workers would eventually be engaged in the war service work of the neighborhood centers as teachers, council officers and group leaders. The February, 1918, issue gave considerable space to a plan for the development of a national community council organization under the Council of National Defense. The plan was to develop committees in each community to undertake work in important war activities. Suggested programs included:

1. Community meetings and releases
2. Patriotic education
3. Reports
4. Food conservation
5. Americanization
6. Fire protection, protection of life and health
7. Labor and industry, that is, campaigns against vagrancy and idleness, enforcement of labor regulations for the protection of women and children
8. Community thrift

9. Community subscriptions, liberty loans and similar matters
10. Soldiers' aid work
11. Coordination, for the community council should consider itself a coordinating agency and a clearing house for the war work for the churches, the fraternities, social clubs, and other organizations and of the individual of the community. If some assisting agency is already doing satisfactory work the community council should strengthen it and work with it.

On March 13, 1918, President Wilson sent the following letter to chairmen of state councils of defense calling their attention to the vital significance of creating community councils so that every citizen of the state could be reached and touched with the inspiration of the common cause. Special attention was called to the values of the schoolhouse as a center for local councils.

THE WHITE HOUSE
WASHINGTON

March 13, 1918

"Dear Mr. Chairman:

"Your state, in extending its national defense organization by the creation of community councils, is in my opinion making an advance of vital significance. It will, I believe, result when thoroughly carried out, in welding the nation together as no nation of great size has ever been welded before. It will build up from the bottom an understanding and sympathy and unity of purpose and effort which will no doubt have an immediate and decisive effect upon our great undertaking. You will find it, I think, not so much a new task as a unification of existing efforts, a fusion of energies now too much scattered and at times somewhat confused, into one harmonious and effective power.

"It is only by extending your organization to small communities that every citizen of the state can be reached and touched with the inspiration of the common cause. The school house has been suggested as an apt though not essential center for your local council. It symbolizes one of the first fruits of such an organization, namely, the spreading of the realization of the great truth that it is each one of us as an individual citizen upon whom rests the ultimate responsibility. Through this great new organization we will express with added emphasis our will to win and our confidence in the utter righteousness of our purpose."

President Wilson and the Council of National Defense recommended the school center for the following reasons:

1. The school is small enough to permit individual contact and is non-political.
2. The school house supplies a meeting place and in many cases domestic science, manual training and other facilities are available.
3. The school district reaches children and parents alike and in the cities the school is already in touch with the alien population.
4. The school is an extensive center of information and discussion.
5. The school principal and faculty provide a tried agency through whose assistance community organization can be correctly effected.
6. The school district, with the school house as its center, is already a social community in farm districts.

War Camp Community Recreation Service

At the request of the War Department Commission on Training Camp Activities the War Camp Community Recreation Service was developed by the National Recreation Association (then called the Playground and Recreation Association of America). Three general areas of procedure were decided upon.

1. As a first step the Y.M.C.A. was assigned certain duties in each camp, especially the establishment and operation of recreation buildings. The Knights of Columbus was also given certain camp duties.
2. The second branch of the work was to exclude vice from the neighborhood of each camp.
3. The third step was to establish recreation programs for men in the training camps in order to provide them with normal social outlets and opportunities for wholesome leisure experience.

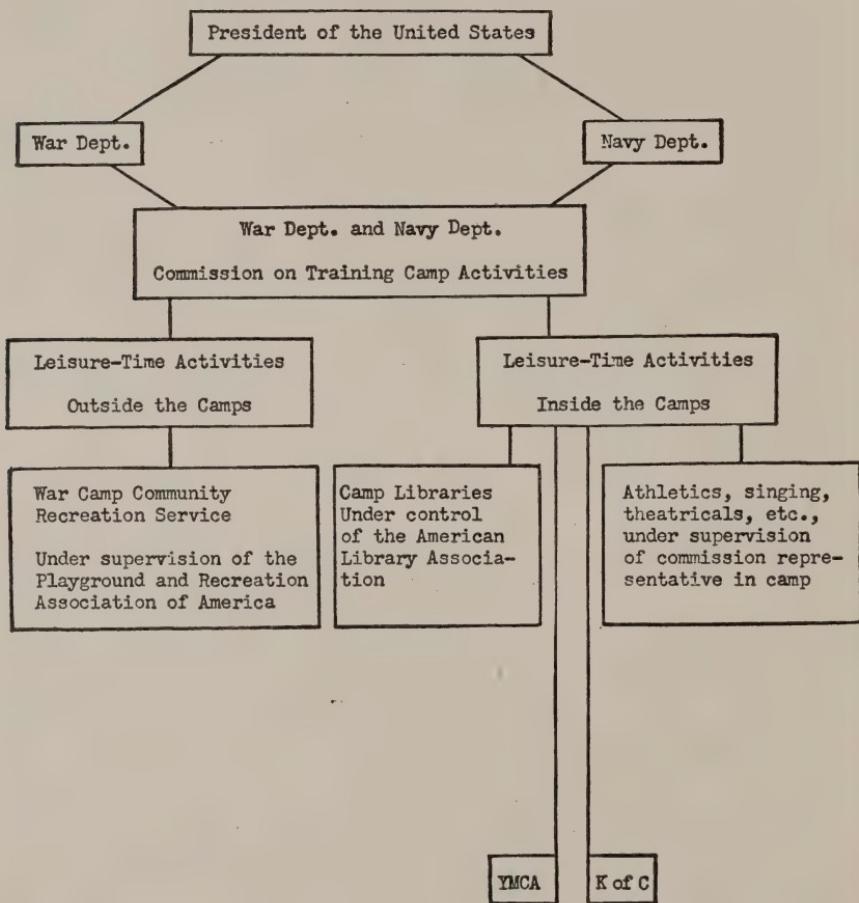
Much stress was laid upon use of community agencies in this plan. Clubs, settlements, recreation centers, schools, libraries, playgrounds, museums and all other leisure-time resources were placed at the disposal of men and officers. The War Camp Community Recreation Service at its peak employed more than two

thousand workers and utilized over five hundred thousand volunteers. The efforts of this agency and of the communities in which it worked created for the first time a network of community organization throughout the nation to meet a specific need in recreation. A continuous training school was conducted for workers to be assigned to the War Camp Community Recreation Service, and later the school developed into the National Recreation Association Leadership Training School established in New York in 1926 which continued to train community recreation leaders until 1936. At that time the work was suspended in order to permit the staff of instructors to conduct training centers in all the principal cities of the country for W.P.A. recreation leaders and others associated with the accelerated problems in recreation during the depression period following 1929. During World War I the National Recreation Association also acted as agent for the United States Department of Labor's Commission on Recreation for Industrial Communities, the purpose of which was to stimulate community organization for recreation in war industrial areas.

Other Developments

E. J. Ward, who had been in the federal service since January 1, 1916, was appointed chief of the division of community organization in the U. S. Bureau of Education on October 12, 1917. Ward was a pioneer in the community use of the schoolhouse having worked in this field for three years in Rochester, New York, and for five years in Wisconsin. A training school for community workers was established in 1916 by the People's Institute of New York with John Collier as director. It consisted of a one year course of training for professional work in community centers, social settlements, public employment and child welfare services. In its first two years the school had thirty-three full-time students, nine half year students and six auditors. Fourteen of the forty-eight were already engaged in professional work. Thirty-five students were placed in positions none of which paid less than \$1,000 a year at the start. Two years later all were paying at least \$1,200. Twenty-five positions were not filled because the school did not have available people. The National

HOW THE LEISURE-TIME SERVICES FOR WORLD WAR I CAMPS
WERE DIVIDED AND SUPERVISED⁸



⁸ *The Community Center*, October, 1917, p. 4.

Education Association appointed a committee to coordinate the development of community centers during the war period and the National Conference of Community Centers was often held in conjunction with the annual meetings of the National Education Association.

THE PERIOD FOLLOWING WORLD WAR I

The impetus given to community organization during World War I carried over in the post-war days of the 1920's when much interest was shown in community coordination. Increased attention was devoted by social workers, lay groups, government agencies and community groups in general. The rise of city, state, regional and national planning groups was characteristic of this period. The purpose of the community movement was a richer life for all and attention was given to the profitable use of leisure and the development of playgrounds, parks, museums, libraries, community playhouses and community gatherings, such as song fests, pageants and band concerts. The realization came that all groups and agencies and institutions must play a larger part in community life than that to which they had been accustomed. Literature on community organization, rare in the early 1900's, began to appear in 1912-15 and became abundant during the war years.

When in 1919 Congress denied a request of the U. S. Bureau of Education for \$100,000 to set up a division of educational extension to extend the work begun in war time, a group of state universities organized the National University Extension Association. In 1921 Harvard University offered a course in community organization and the administration of community centers, settlement houses and recreation departments. In the fall of 1921 leaders of the Grange, Farm Bureau Association and Country Life Association held a joint meeting to discuss means of having their groups cooperate in local, state and national community organization movements. Also in 1921, a council of community organizing agencies was formed in New York City including the State Parliament of Community Councils, the United Neighborhood House, the People's Institute of Brooklyn, the Extension

Department of the Board of Education and the Federated Neighborhood Association.

At the annual meeting of the National Community Center Association in Washington in 1923, some of the topics discussed were a study of community terminology and analysis, an analysis of score card of community organization, a valuation of community studies, and community organization in New York City. At the annual meeting in Chicago in 1924 discussions included: why Chicago school centers failed and succeeded; the Buffalo study of community organization; and a study of rural community halls. Community center contributions to community organization up to that time follow. The community center:

1. Provided a focal point for community action
2. Developed in each community according to local needs
3. Furnished a means of expression of the interest of the individual in community affairs
4. Represented a means of coordinating the efforts of agencies, groups and individuals
5. Was essentially democratic

In the period 1920-30, the community organization movement considerably broadened to include much more than was at first visioned by the original community center program. Community organization as a process began to take precedence over community organization as a level of attainment. Self-appraisal and a study of aims and objectives emerged. A concern for the recreation of youth in rural communities was accentuated. Community chests first established in 1913 continued to grow. Councils of social agencies first organized in 1909-1920 in Pittsburgh, Milwaukee, Denver, St. Louis and Cincinnati spread to many cities and became a strong factor in community organization work. Public provision for self-organized groups and recreation associations expanded along with public provision for recreation in general. Planning groups gave neighborhood organization consideration. A closer association was advocated between school and city authorities. The National Recreation Association organized Community Service, Incorporated, after the war to replace War Camp Community Recreation Service. The purpose of the new organization was to subsidize employment of recreation

directors in communities where enthusiasm for recreation had been awakened during the war. In most instances the experiment was not successful. Few of the communities were sufficiently influenced by it to assume responsibility for the recreation service.

THE DEPRESSION PERIOD

The depression period of the 1930's brought community organization a new role in the relief of economic stress on a nation-wide scale. Cooperative relationships between public and private agencies were multiplied many times. Public responsibility for alleviation of the economic plight and indigency of individuals and family groups emerged. Councils of citizens and agency representatives appeared in large numbers as a national pattern. A policy of the Work Projects Administration encouraged the establishment of advisory committees or councils for specific projects to secure coordination of efforts between community agencies and the W.P.A. Supervisors of projects became active in the formation of such groups. Where the local community organization process already provided a coordinating body for a specific activity this group served as the advisory committee for the project or appointed a subcommittee to act. Activities engaged in by the advisory councils or committees included:

1. Determining community deficiencies
2. Determining community resources
3. Relating project activities to community needs
4. Planning program content
5. Developing community participation
6. Developing training programs
7. Planning community recreation, art and other centers
8. Securing adequate project sponsorship

Community organization for recreation was adopted on a national scale with the advent of federal recreation projects. City-wide, community and neighborhood recreation advisory councils were formed composed of city officials, agency representatives and laymen to guide the development of the federal recreation program as a supplement to existing offerings, and to

gear it to local needs and customs. The committee plan was not confined to recreation but functioned as an integral part of most community service type projects, such as adult education, libraries, toy loan libraries and nursery schools.

Recreation planning or advisory councils as a fundamental pattern of the recreation projects brought opportunity for thousands of lay citizens to participate with city officials and agency representatives in developing recreation in their communities. In cities where community councils formed of private agencies were operative special attention was given to relating them to the federal program. The two major purposes of the recreation advisory council were: (1) to give citizens an opportunity to become active in the recreation affairs of their community; and (2) to provide a mechanism that would lead to the establishment of locally supported programs after the withdrawal of federal assistance. The record of communities which set up public supported recreation programs for the first time following their experience with the emergency program is impressive and attests to the value of the advisory council plan. Contributions of the W.P.A. to community organization for recreation may be summarized thus:

1. The layman was moved to take an important place in community recreation.
2. Public bodies and private agencies were stimulated to closer association in recreation planning, in sharing of facilities and in meeting community needs.
3. The principle of recreation as a community responsibility was greatly advanced.

This period also saw the expansion of recreation enabling legislation which many states and communities found necessary to serve as a foundation for good community organization for recreation. The National Recreation Association played an important role in securing necessary and appropriate legislation.

Professional education for recreation leadership was established in the 1930's as a development of national scope. The First College Conference on Training Recreation Leaders was held in December, 1937, and marked the beginning of continuous and planned efforts in this field.

RECREATION AND THE SECOND WORLD WAR

World War II brought an accentuated need for application of community organization methods to local and national needs. Local and state defense councils, the United Service Organizations, the American Red Cross and other organizations and groups provided the means for millions of American citizens to participate in the war effort and to become part of community organization procedures designed to meet needs engendered by war conditions. The values of democratic citizenship as given expression through community organization represented new motivations for many. The responsibility of the citizen in a democracy became more practicably illustrative. Volunteer effort typical of the U.S.O. and the A.R.C. programs became an accepted standard. Community organization methods were fundamental to the U.S.O. and to the A.R.C. The latter utilized them not only in this country but also abroad, especially in Great Britain.

U.S.O. and A.R.C.

The U.S.O. filed its charter of incorporation on February 4, 1941. Six agencies—the Young Men's Christian Association, National Catholic Community Service, Salvation Army, Young Women's Christian Association, National Jewish Welfare Board, and National Travelers' Aid Association—combined with government endorsement to form the organization. The basic purpose was to present a united front to serve soldiers in communities on leave and during free time, and to provide for the needs of war workers in areas of industrial concentration. The A.R.C. in addition to its traditional domestic program was given the responsibility for overseas welfare and recreation activities for the armed forces.

Experiences of World War I led to the welfare and recreation pattern adopted in the recent war. Raymond B. Fosdick, chairman of the Commission on Training Camp Activities in the first war, later recommended that in the event of another war the armed services be prepared to conduct with their own personnel athletic and recreation activities on military reservations. This in part led

to the Army Special Service Division active in the last war. Differences among welfare organizations operating individually overseas in the 1914-18 conflict led to the appointment of an army committee to study plans for overseas welfare service in the event of a future war. The result was another influence bearing upon the development of army provision for special service functions. A further outcome was the designation of the A.R.C. as the sole non-military agency to operate with an expeditionary force. The Navy also agreed to this plan. Thus the welfare and recreation functions of the A.R.C. and U.S.O. were clearly outlined.

U.S.O. operations such as clubs, lounges and kindred activities reached a peak of 3,035 in March, 1944. Success of the program was due basically to the community individuals and organizations that cooperated in its activities. In Detroit 1,970 and in Los Angeles 1,600 different community organizations worked together to make the program possible. Over one million volunteers were recorded by the U.S.O.

The A.R.C. blood donor service, nurse's aide corps, motor corps, nutrition aides, canteen service, gray ladies and production division all provided legions of opportunities for volunteers. In all theaters of war as of June 30, 1945, the A.R.C. operated five hundred on-post clubs, three hundred off-post clubs, fifty rest homes and five hundred clubmobile and mobile units. Over 8,700 paid workers were employed in overseas operations as of June 30, 1945. In 1945 over 3,086,000 were active in the various divisions of the volunteer corps and almost twenty million or 78.4 percent of total school population enrolled in the Junior Red Cross. The J.R.C. worked with more than one hundred national organizations in mutual programs. Although the activities of the A.R.C. and U.S.O. were many, a major function was leisure-time programs for war workers and members of the armed services. The contributions of these agencies to community organization for recreation were substantial.

The Federal Government

On-post recreation programs administered by Army and Navy personnel gave to millions of young adults their first opportunities to participate in leisure-time programs staffed with competent

leaders, in most cases, and utilizing, in the main, good recreation facilities. Entertainment programs such as movies and U.S.O. Camp Shows added to the total leisure opportunities for service people. New experiences and new skills became part of the pattern of leisure pursuits of vast numbers. Lessons learned from war time experiences have been applied by the Army and Navy in the building of widespread leisure opportunities as part of the permanent structure of the armed services. The return of former service personnel to their home communities has resulted in an additional potent force for good community organization for recreation. There is direct evidence of this influence at work in the action of veterans' organizations leading to the stimulation and support of recreation opportunities in countless communities.

Community organization methods were evident in at least some overseas operations. In Great Britain, for example, more than six thousand volunteers, mostly British women, but a considerable number of Americans and a few of other nationalities, were active at the peak of A.R.C. services. In addition the A.R.C. service clubs, located in more than seventy-five English cities, were assisted by community committees of public agency, private agency and lay character. They functioned much like a recreation advisory committee and were very helpful in terms of recreation facilities, programs and leadership. The American Eighth Air Force Fighter Command located in England issued a directive on May 30, 1943, calling for the establishment of enlisted men's councils. The purpose was to develop a recreation program based on the needs of the participants and to develop leadership. The mission of the council was stated:

1. To determine what activities are most popular and most desired by the unit
2. To plan and supervise such athletics as are desired by the majority of personnel
3. To determine what books and magazines are most popular with the personnel, prior to requisitioning
4. To encourage and produce theatrical and musical entertainments within the unit
5. To assist unit officers in promoting and supervising the sale of National Service Life Insurance to members of the unit

6. To assist the designated unit officer in promoting the educational program
7. To assist unit officers in carrying out the Army Orientation Program.

The directive further provided that the general objective would be to assist the special service officer in planning a program of wholesome recreation, entertainment and education for the wise use of leisure time in order to sustain personnel physically and mentally in accordance with their own interests and inclinations and in accord with the desires of the command concerned. It also pointed out that the council representatives should be of a creative mind, with ability to improvise, and possessing the qualities of initiative and leadership so that they could function independently as well as in council.

The Office of Community War Services of the Federal Security Agency was the major community organization influence of the federal government during World War II. Its activities were many and varied. Recreation was one of the most important. This division worked with national public and private agencies and countless state and local committees. It was called upon for advice and assistance not only to meet war emergencies but also to assist communities to develop progressive plans for a recreation service. Through its seventy field representatives it helped more than 2,500 cities and towns in planning and developing community recreation. It assisted in the organization of local recreation committees and in studies on community organization for recreation. The purpose of the F.S.A. division of recreation was to reinforce community activity—to stimulate local initiative and responsibility and to work with existing groups and organizations, public, private and lay. Its mission was to aid communities to organize their resources.

National Recreation Association

Services of the National Recreation Association were among the first to be used in the increased need in community organization for recreation during the war. Many of its staff members were loaned to government agencies and their years of experience were a telling factor in the organization of community recreation.

councils and advisory groups and in the establishment of recreation programs for war workers and service personnel.

Community Councils

Special mention should be made of community councils. The earlier councils of World War I continued in some instances after 1918 to aid returning service men, to assist in food campaigns for the people of Europe and to develop local health, education and recreation services. Community Council Circular No. 4, dated January 15, 1919, and published by the Council of National Defense called for a permanent organization plan for communities. It proposed a permanent community program to include health and sanitation, moral conditions, Americanization, education, cooperative purchasing, improvement of community participation, recreation and community service. It recommended that a permanent executive secretary, paid whenever possible, be a basic part of the structure. Other suggestions were given on organization, publicity, committees, meetings and coordination. Other national groups also attempted to keep the movement virile but in the period of American prosperity following the war, most community councils disintegrated. A few continued to function on a permanent basis.

The emergency of World War II saw a renewed awakening of the council plan. It could call upon many more resources which had sprung up nationally and locally between the two wars. Veterans' groups, civic organizations, councils of social agencies and others were now available. The local defense council became the focal point and was related to the state defense council, which in turn was part of the national defense council structure. The councils' activities were of a wide variety and planned in great detail. Existing neighborhood and community councils became part of the larger sphere of the defense council. Local groups and organizations of all types and functions affiliated with the central council for defense. Modern warfare took the council into fields not known to the World War I defense council. The perfection of air-raid precautions, planning of first aid stations and development of motor corps received much attention. Subcommittees were formed to develop accentuated programs in health, child

welfare, recreation and other specialized functions. In 1941, 1942, and 1943 the defense council became the major community planning and coordinating agency. In 1944, 1945, and 1946 a heavy toll was taken of defense councils through the gaining of victory and resultant public apathy. Post-war planning councils have been set up in many states and have encouraged the development of local post-war councils. The pattern is patchy, however, and many communities seem content to allow planning to be again the function of old-line agencies. Some councils, however, have survived, if not in their entirety, at least in part. Councils in functional areas such as recreation, health, youth and child welfare have the best record of survival. Community coordination efforts of the defense councils succeeded to a larger degree than previous efforts in securing lay participation and this success has had some continuing good effects, many of which show promise of permanency.

The work of community councils under the defense program was one of the most significant developments in community co-ordination of all time. New methods and new techniques of working together to achieve goals of common interest and to meet needs of a varied character were important outcomes. Recreation particularly was aided by the work of the councils in terms of permanent gains on the national level, the state level and the community and neighborhood levels. Unification of community forces was a necessary procedure in mobilization of recreation resources. Communities were given an opportunity to view the effectiveness of well coordinated recreation programs, many of them for the first time. In terms of permanent gains for recreation, the activities of community councils are much more significant than the invaluable community coordination efforts of the U.S.O. and the A.R.C., not forgetting that many of the activities of these two organizations were related to community mobilization for recreation. The war demanded great stress on community action. Special interests became unimportant in the face of imperative community needs. Community coordination reached new heights, some of them in the field of recreation. From war experiences have come almost universal desires to continue joint planning and cooperative action. A more complete account of community recreation councils is given in Chapter IV.

POST-WAR DEVELOPMENTS

The withdrawal of national and state field consultant service, prominent during the war, has been counteracted in some states by universities, colleges and state departments stepping into the breach and providing practical assistance to community organization efforts. This is especially noticeable in the fields of recreation and youth services. Indiana University in October, 1945, the University of Minnesota in February, 1946, and the University of Wisconsin in September, 1947, for example, established recreation consultant services to local communities. Youth commissions or divisions in California, Illinois, Minnesota, New York and Wisconsin are examples of organizations in this field which also provide assistance to local communities. In North Carolina, New Hampshire, Vermont, Kentucky, and California separate state recreation departments or divisions have been set up by act of the legislature or by executive order of the governor to aid communities to organize for recreation. Legislation of this nature is pending or being studied in at least twenty other states. State departments of education are also increasingly providing consultant service in recreation.

On the national level the experience gained by the Recreation Division of the Federal Security Administration during the war through its field staff had an important bearing on the creation and introduction of Senate Bill 2070 considered at the second session of the seventy-ninth Congress. It was again introduced as Senate Bill 1229 in the eightieth Congress on May 5, 1947. The bill would authorize the Federal Security Administrator to assist the states in the development of community recreation programs for the people of the United States by means of technical and professional advisory services through a federal service, which would not be a national program or federal department, but a service of a research and consultation nature to the states. A companion bill, H.R. 5723, sponsored by the American Recreation Society, was introduced at the second session of the eightieth Congress on March 5, 1948. At the Attorney General's conference on juvenile delinquency in Washington in December, 1946, a proposal by an eastern sports writer that "the Attorney General of the United States recommend to the President

and the Congress that a national youth program for the expansion of competitive sports and all forms of healthful recreation be authorized" was overwhelmingly defeated when put to a vote of the conferees. Opponents of the proposal based their objection on a belief that such a program would be a regimented one reminiscent of the Nazi youth movement in Germany. Late in 1946 several federal agencies organized into the Federal Inter-Agency Recreation Committee and agreed upon the appointment of a recreation coordinator. The recent National Conference on the Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency and the newly formed National Social Welfare Assembly represent significant developments on the national level.

Community war memorials also represent an important nationwide movement of much significance for recreation. The majority of war memorial plans include provision for a community center related to the civic and recreation life of the community. Many communities which have been without adequate centers for leisure-time pursuits are finding them in memorials dedicated to those who have not returned to enjoy the freedom for which they fought and died. There can be few more appropriate monuments to them than a center in their own community for the opportunity to exercise freedom of choice in the American way of life. The war memorial plan has become closely associated with an extension of the community center movement. An excellent compilation of literature in this area has been made by Dahir.⁹

A final reference to post-war developments is related to co-ordination and joint planning on the state level and the national level for recreation and the assumption of state responsibility for the stimulation of local recreation. For over forty years beginning with the first manifestations of an organized recreation movement in America stress has been laid upon local community aspects of planned leisure-time opportunities. The combined accomplishments of communities in recreation during this brief period represent one of the most significant social achievements in American life. To this advance are now being added the interest and the effort of new state and national movements

⁹ *Community Centers as Living War Memorials*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1946.

which promise to result in accelerated gains of an unprecedented proportion for recreation. This trend is discussed in Chapter V.

SUGGESTED READINGS

Books

- McMillen, Wayne. *Community Organization for Social Welfare*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945.
Newman, Sir George. *English Social Services*. London: William Collins, 1941.
Sanderson, Dwight. *Sociology and Rural Social Organization*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1942.
Steiner, Jesse F. *Community Organization*. New York: Century Co., 1930.

ARTICLES

- Beam, Kenneth. "Community Councils in 1918 and 1941." *Community Coordination*, November-December, 1940.
Burchard, Edward L. "Can We Make Emergency Coordination Permanent?" *Community Coordination*, January-February, 1941.
Dunham, Arthur. "Community Organization for Social Work." *Social Work Yearbook*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1943.
"Federal Recommendations for Community Organization." *Community Coordination*, January-February, 1941.
Mayo, Leonard. "Community Organization in 1946." *Proceedings National Conference Social Work*, 1946.
McCloskey, Mark. "Community Organization for Defense Recreation." *Community Coordination*. November-December, 1941.
"National Federation of Settlements." *Social Work Yearbook*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947.
Perry, C. A. "Ten Years of the Community Center Movement." *The Community Center*, July-August, 1921.
Pray, Kenneth, L. M. "When is Community Organization Social Work Practice?" *Proceedings National Conference Social Work*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1948.
"Recommendations to Community Councils in 1919." *Community Coordination*. March-April, 1941.
Snell, Chester D. "The Enduring Values of the United Service Organizations." *Proceedings National Conference Social Work*, 1945.
Weir, L. H. "Historical Background of Recreation in American Life." *Parks and Recreation*, July-August, 1946.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

- A Guide to Community Coordination.* Los Angeles: Coordinating Councils, Inc., 1941.
- Annual Report American Red Cross.* Washington, D. C.: June 30, 1945.
- Community Organization—Its Nature and Setting.* Detroit: Association for the Study of Community Organization, October, 1947.
- Dahir, James. *Community Centers as Living War Memorials.* New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1946.
- Glueck, Eleanor. *The Extended Use of School Buildings.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Bureau of Education, Bul. No. 5, Government Printing Office, 1927.
- Group Leadership in the Present Emergency.* New York: American Association for the Study of Group Work, 1941.
- Perry, C. A. *School Extension Statistics.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Bureau of Education, Bul. No. 30, Government Printing Office, 1917.
- . *The Extension of Public Education.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Bureau of Education, Bul. No. 28, Government Printing Office, 1915.
- The Community Approach to Juvenile Delinquency.* New York: National Probation Association, Yearbook, 1936.
- The Community Center.* Whole issues of June, 1917; October, 1917; November, 1917; January, 1918; and February, 1918.
- U.S.O. Report of the President.* New York: U.S.O. Inc., January 9, 1948.

CHAPTER IV

Local Community Organization for Recreation ~

Diversity is not limited to types and nature of human beings. It is equally as characteristic of communities. If the setting of one area of life activity were to be studied in ten different communities the result would be ten different and distinct accounts. Recognition of and respect for differentiation must be fundamental attributes of those who would participate in the process of community organization be it applied to the local, county, state, regional or national level. Communities do not conform to a pattern—they create their own.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR RECREATION

To repeat, recreation is neither the sole responsibility nor exclusive right of any one community agency or group. It is a broad area of life that spreads across and beyond many institutions, organizations and services. For some it is a primary function, for others, a secondary activity and for still others, an incidental or kindred or supplemental program. The essence of recreation is freedom, in terms not only of the individual and his right to determine his leisure pursuits, but also of the right of access by any group or agency to the field of operation. Respect for this tenet makes possible in a democratic society a situation whereby countless recreation efforts—public, private and voluntary—exist and flourish, and necessarily so, side by side, each to the tonicity of the others. Voluntary cooperation and coordination thus become more important, more significant and more necessary than determination of rights and boundaries. The filling of gaps becomes more meaningful than the avoidance of duplication. The process of community organization as well as the attainment of a

satisfactory and efficient level of community coordination will insure that good order exists among diversity and multiplicity of effort. Recreation, being a broad area of living, and not a series of activities, cannot be confined. It must not be made to suffer from claustrophobia; rather it should flourish in the open available to all from many sources.

Recreation is basically a local responsibility—an obligation, in part, of local government. In almost every locality groups such as Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Y.M.C.A., C.Y.O., Y.M.H.A., 4-H Clubs, P.T.A.'s, veterans' organizations, and many others offer opportunities for the acquisition and practice of recreation skills and interests. The offerings of such groups are strengthened and enlarged where the community has accepted the responsibility of establishing an organized recreation system supported by tax funds. As do other governmental services, a publicly supported recreation program possesses the qualities of inclusiveness, democracy, permanency and financial stability. Such a program, however, is not a substitute for private and voluntary agency and group programs, nor are the latter an alternative or substitute for a tax supported recreation service. To adequately meet the needs and interests of the community all are necessary.

COUNCILS OF SOCIAL AGENCIES

A means of coordinating public and private welfare, education and recreation agencies and groups, particularly in large cities, is provided by the council of social agencies. This organization is essentially a coordinating device available to both private and public bodies, unlike the community chest which is a fund gathering technique for privately supported social agencies and does not include tax supported bodies. Many councils of social agencies have group work and recreation sections while others have community coordinating council divisions with recreation as one of their principal concerns. The Baltimore Council of Social Agencies, for example, was organized on December 7, 1935, for the purpose of cooperative planning by social agencies for more effectively meeting the social welfare needs of that city. Its charter provides for two types of membership—organization and individual. Membership is open to any publicly or privately

supported social service agency in the metropolitan area of Baltimore. The council has a division on recreation and education agencies. Typical of its activities are leadership training institutes, discussions on methods of cooperation between public and private agencies, joint planning sessions on city-wide recreation programs, and studies on means of interpreting group work and recreation.

The Minneapolis Council of Social Agencies, organized in 1919, created a separate group work and recreation division in 1941 and in 1944 set up a division on community councils. The former consists of the professional head and one board member from each of the local organizations, public and private, operating primarily in the area of group work and recreation. A paid executive secretary is employed to facilitate the work of the division, and he also acts as executive secretary of all of its committees. The division has three standing committees: settlements, city-wide organizations, and camping. Six objectives indicate the purpose of the group work and recreation division:

1. To provide opportunity for interested laymen and professional personnel to participate in community planning in the area of group work and recreation services for the community
2. To study community needs in the field of group work and recreation and to plan constructively and cooperatively to meet these needs
3. To provide an educational medium designed to improve the quality of agency administration and to enhance the skills of the professional and volunteer workers in the field
4. To create an interest on the part of the agencies and the community as a whole in the need for employing more trained professional personnel in the group work and recreation agencies.
5. To assume an active role in improving the quality and quantity of group work courses offered on a graduate level at the University of Minnesota.
6. To serve as a clearing house for the exchange of information on current issues, problems and needs that must be faced by youth and to assist the agencies to give attention and consideration to these through program content

Originally the group work and recreation division of the Minneapolis Council of Social Agencies included the activities of

community councils. In 1944 the executive committee of the Citizens' Committee on Youth, prompted by the upward trend of juvenile delinquency, referred the problem of providing a program for youth to the group work and recreation committee which body formulated a fourteen-point action program. It included plans for correlation of existing community councils and for development of additional councils in areas of the city where none existed. To encourage the development of new councils a separate division on community councils was set up, a full time executive secretary named and a community council coordinating committee created. The four councils that existed at that time have been joined since by twelve new groups. The coordinating committee developed the following as the purpose of a community council:

To stimulate the interests of residents in the welfare of their community in cooperation with existing agencies in Hennepin County, without duplication, and to create an awareness of the problems of their community through:

1. Study of community needs and means of meeting these needs
2. Working toward widespread participation of community residents in thinking and planning for the needs of the community
3. Cooperation with all individuals, organizations and agencies interested in advancing the welfare of the community
4. Providing the means whereby the community may express its desires and act for constructive development in at least three fields of neighborhood endeavor which come within the scope of community council interests

The purpose of the community council is summarized thus: "To promote civic betterment through neighborhood planning and coordination; to offer a medium of exchange of ideas and experiences through representatives of affiliated community councils and other affiliated groups interested in the objectives stated; and to offer a channel through which citizen groups may be made articulate."¹

To become affiliated with the coordinating committee a community council must:

¹ *Structure and Function of Community Council Coordinating Committee.* Minneapolis: Council of Social Agencies, April 22, 1946. (Mimeographed)

1. Be representative of the community
2. Be non-sectarian and non-partisan
3. Be open to and include both individual members and delegates from neighborhood organizations
4. Have at least ten members and represent at least three neighborhood organizations
5. Select its officers and board of directors from residents of the community

Although the coordinating council movement in Minneapolis and Hennepin County was originally stimulated by concern over juvenile delinquency, its interests now cover a wide field of community needs. One of the most prominent activities is recreation. Many of the councils have standing committees on recreation. The community council coordinating committee contains members at large who are selected by the committee on the basis of their interest in and special contribution to the work of the co-ordinating group. Included among them is a professional recreation consultant. The coordinating committee is financed through an annual appropriation of \$1,000 from the council of social agencies. Other appropriations of a specialized nature are available when need is demonstrated.

The Welfare Federation of Cleveland has a committee on area councils with which are voluntarily associated thirteen community councils, three are in suburban areas and ten in various parts of the city.² Each is an autonomous unit free to decide upon activities of its own choice; none is responsible to the Federation. Composition of the councils varies considerably. Some are composed of social workers; some of school people; some of laymen; and some of laymen and professionals. The community council made up of social workers is chiefly for the purpose of dealing with technical problems of coordination of agency services and methods of directing service activities; whereas the lay councils are constituted largely of citizens whose purpose is to point out unmet needs and the type of program necessary to meet the needs. Many hundreds of people are actively involved in community welfare planning through the medium of community councils in Cleveland.

² McCullough, W. T. "There is Nothing Wrong with Cities that Citizens Cannot Correct." *Minutes of Annual Meeting, Minneapolis Community Councils Coordinating Committee*, February, 1947. (Mimeographed)

The Federation furnishes six of the councils with either full or part-time field secretaries who maintain an office in the individual council areas and act as consultants and resource people on the technical aspects of programs decided upon by the councils. The councils do not participate in operation of programs except as they assist in working out joint programs among service agencies. Planning and coordination are two of the chief functions of the councils. They attempt to stimulate an existing agency to undertake needed new services or try to secure the establishment of new agencies if such are clearly necessary.

In addition to the Federation, the Cleveland Planning Commission encourages the organization and activities of community councils and provides them with technical personnel to assist in neighborhood studies. The Commission believes that city planning cannot be successfully undertaken without public support and opportunity for expression of public opinion. It looks upon the community council as means of support and opportunity.

Among the most successful Cleveland community councils are those which have strong lay leadership and predominate lay representation. They have succeeded, as have lay councils in other cities, in securing a greater response from the people than have professional workers because the council is primarily a laymen's organization and not a super structure. Interest of councils in community-wide planning has no other purpose than improvement of conditions under which the council members and their families have to live in their communities. As a result the agencies providing services in the council areas have become more responsive to the needs and desires of the people. This has led to increased agency competence and to broadening of the agency's viewpoint as to its place in community life, an accomplishment which serves to illustrate one example of the contribution laymen have to make to the work of professionals.

The above patterns involving councils of social agencies are good plans for cities of 50,000 population and over, where such bodies are often to be found. There are now some 350 councils of social agencies. In the smaller community, however, councils of social agencies do not usually exist and the recreation advisory committee as described later becomes a practicable technique for the coordination of recreation and representation by laymen.

The community-wide advisory committee in the small locality corresponds to the neighborhood group in the large city. The pattern of organization varies but the purpose—coordination, joint planning, improvement of public relations and lay participation—remains the same.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE AGENCY RELATIONSHIPS

The public recreation authority, the basis of community recreation, and the various patterns which it exhibits are described in Chapter VII. A close cooperative and coordinative relationship among public and private agencies in recreation is essential if each is to fulfill its mission in community life. Today much is heard from all sides about recreation as an expanding public function and a responsibility of government. Recreation as a basic public service in the community is on a decided upswing. State recreation enabling acts of a general and specific nature have multiplied in recent years; tax supported programs are being rapidly instituted in localities previously without such services; public recreation budgets are increasing; and school districts are taking their place in community recreation with increased frequency. But public recreation departments, as pointed out previously, do not totally represent "community" recreation. The latter is a complete and comprehensive term and includes all efforts, regardless of their origin or nature. In recreation, as in many areas of community life, public and private enterprises exist side by side. Recreation cannot be labeled as distinctive or as a sole prerogative of public or private agencies. The situation in a particular community will affect in a considerable degree the division of work and function between the two types of agencies. Much has been said and written regarding public and private agencies. They exhibit distinct differences in methods of finance, administration, program and facilities. The following summarization will be helpful:

1. No sharp dividing line can be drawn to precisely identify functions as unerringly characteristic of public or private agencies.
2. Community situations, including the varying degrees of de-

velopment and capacity of public and private agencies, will do much to determine the functions to be performed by each at any given time.

3. Individual functions are not the inherent right of either type of agency.
4. The private agency can select its type and extent of service. It has no obligation to meet the needs of all.
5. The public recreation agency usually is required by law to serve all to an equal degree. It may have limitations imposed by law or social custom but within the range of service it must provide for all. Its responsibility is to meet widespread need.
6. The preceding two points do not imply a qualitative difference between the functions of public and private endeavor.
7. The difference between the public and private agency relates to constituency, function, degree of proportionate emphasis and basic authority and control.
8. Both the public and the private agencies should have a co-operative function in relation to the other.
9. The private agency, because of flexibility in selection of area and service, is in a strategic position to experiment with innovations and variety of service.

The functions of private agencies in health, welfare and recreation have been defined :

1. To demonstrate important services in health, welfare, education and recreation until the public agency is ready to support such programs on a mass basis
2. To offer specialized or intensive treatment programs and to experiment with the development of professional techniques which later may be incorporated in the public program
3. To provide services on a religious, sectarian or special interest basis that are not appropriate for governmental support³

The following classification is generally accepted today in discussions of public and private recreation agency responsibilities :

1. Development and maintenance of major recreation facilities, such as parks, playfields, tennis courts, swimming pools and

³ *Public Agency—Council Relationships*. New York: Community Chests and Councils, Inc., 1946, p. 8.

beaches, golf courses, and picnic areas is a public responsibility and one which depends on support from public funds.

2. Provision of leadership, equipment and supplies for an inclusive program of organized recreation opportunities for all the people is also the responsibility of the public agency and ordinarily is discharged by the schools and government recreation authorities.

3. Organizing and maintaining leadership and program services for small groups, some of which may be self-organized and self-determined, is a function in which private agencies are most conspicuous. They give much attention to the group process and the inter-relationships of group members. Because they are not charged with a service to all private agencies are in a strategic position to fulfill this function.

One approach, the cooperative, is shared by both types of agencies. The relationships engendered through cooperation are ones from which both have much to gain as both seek the same ends—better individuals and better communities. The cooperative approach recognizes that:

1. Public facilities are necessary to private agencies for the conduct of many of their activities.
2. Community-wide projects demand the resources of all agencies.
3. Many activities pioneered by private groups have been taken over as public functions.
4. Common joint activities include surveys, discussions, study groups, leadership education courses and various community enterprises.

A factor of major concern today calling for cooperative endeavor by the public and the private agency relates to location and use of large-type recreation facilities such as gymnasiums, swimming pools and other extensive developments for recreation opportunities for physical activities. This consideration is especially important to agencies like the Y.M.C.A. and the Y.W.C.A. which operate programs for young people as differentiated from

other voluntary groups such as the P.T.A., veterans' organizations, and service clubs which are primarily interested in stimulation of recreation rather than operation of an activity program. Rather than plan the erection of such facilities as part of its plant the private agency should lend its support to plans and efforts of the public agency to supply the needed areas and facilities in every neighborhood of the community. The public agency in turn should recognize the right of the private agency in the community to a share in the use of public facilities. An important means of public and private cooperation, not to be overlooked, is full inclusion of and participation by private agencies as well as voluntary groups in the community recreation advisory council or committee which is described later.

Public Agency and Council of Social Agencies

Councils of social agencies from their beginning in Milwaukee and Pittsburgh in 1909 for many years were considered a means of relating the planning of health, welfare and recreation agencies of a voluntary nature which were already related through a common appeal for funds. They represented a logical complement of the community chest. Later they broadened to include other private organizations which for reasons related to policy and methods of fund raising were not participants in chest financial drives. Traditionally, councils of social agencies have been composed primarily of professional representatives and board members of private agencies, plus a few citizens at large. Their large city backgrounds developed a type of coordinating body dominated by private agencies having numerical strength over public agencies of a health, welfare and recreation nature. Calculated efforts have been made in recent years by many councils to become community, and not agency, coordinating and planning instruments and as a consequence public agencies and representatives of civic, labor, church and business organizations are now to be found on most councils. The acceptance of new and increased responsibilities by government in community services has served to advance public agencies in the area of interests of councils of social agencies. In 1944 public agency expenditures

amounted to 61.3 percent of all funds spent for health, welfare and recreation services in fourteen metropolitan areas.⁴

A recent survey of relationships between public agencies and councils of social agencies in 113 of the 285 member councils of Community Chests and Councils, Incorporated revealed much new progress in this field.⁵ Although public agencies are most active in large urban areas, councils are more representative by far of private agencies because of their numerical superiority. In cities under 300,000 of each twenty representatives slightly over ten are from private agencies, between four and five from public departments and between four and five from civic organizations. Less than half of the 113 councils reported some form of public financial support. Almost all the councils serve an area larger than a city and they are tending toward adoption of the term *community* in place of *social agencies*. Less than one-third of the councils reported attendance at budget hearings related to public agencies. Local or county public recreation departments were reported as active members in sixty councils and not active in seventeen. No data were given on the remaining thirty-six councils. Parks, museums and libraries, all important recreational resources, were not, however, related to councils of social agencies in many communities.

COMMUNITY COUNCILS

Among the various factors employed in the process of community organization for recreation one, which from the viewpoint of its possibilities for lay participation, is deserving of special consideration. It is the community recreation council which provides an opportunity for the highest type of leisure activity—using one's free time to better the conditions of community life. The community recreation council or committee is most often an advisory group composed of laymen and professionals of the community who are interested in the establishment and maintenance of a good recreation service. Representatives of social, civic, labor, religious and other kindred forms of social organization in the community usually compose the council. It

⁴ *Expenditures for Community Health and Welfare 1944 Figures*, p. 33.

⁵ *Public Agency—Council Relationships*.

may or may not be officially sponsored by the recreation authority, where one exists. It has no legal basis but draws its authority for existence from its dedication to community betterment. It may be part of a larger community or coordinating council interested in several phases of civic progress, or it may be a separate organization with no such affiliation.

History

A review of the rise of community councils provides an approach to the present day setting of recreation advisory councils. Local coordinating bodies or community councils operate under a wide variety of names such as welfare council, improvement association, social planning council, booster club, neighborhood council, coordinating council, community council, youth committee, community service council, district council, human relations council and others. Although some of these types earlier existed particularly in Massachusetts and New York City, the first World War marks the real beginning of the present day community council movement. Chapter III pointed out the stress that was laid upon the council plan by President Wilson and others. Needs of the times gave rise to a new form, or at least popularized a little used form, of community coordination as a contrast to the factor of institutionalism which prior to the war was characteristic of community social services. The record of survival of the 1917-1919 councils was not impressive, but the council idea as a new development capable of widespread application became established as a procedure in community organization. Immediately following the war Chicago and Berkeley, California, developed the foundation for neighborhood and community-wide councils. Beginning in 1922 significant progress was made through the establishment of councils in Los Angeles and several other California cities. In 1932 coordinating councils were organized in Los Angeles County. In 1935 California Coordinating Councils was formed and, on March 29, 1938, a new organization, Coordinating Councils, Incorporated, came into being to serve the coordinating council movement in California and other states. It is now inactive. Social welfare surveys made in many

cities throughout the country in the period 1925-1938 recommended the establishment of the community council plan. Many councils originated during the depression and were further studied and refined in the 1938-1942 period.

In 1938 a comprehensive study was made of coordinating councils in California.⁶ Of the 126 councils then in existence, two-thirds were in cities under twenty-five thousand and one-half in cities and towns under fifteen thousand. An examination of the activities of the councils in Los Angeles County provides an insight into the types of functions carried on by California councils. The Los Angeles County councils in June, 1938 listed 593 activities grouped under the following headings: conducting surveys; improving recreation facilities; providing special activities for children; extending organizations for boys and girls; serving individual cases; conducting summer camps; conducting health and safety programs; meeting needs of young people; raising standards of home life; improving community conditions; and providing information services.

At the Attorney General's conference on crime in Washington, D. C., in December, 1934, a resolution was passed endorsing the coordinating council movement. The first national conference on coordinating councils was held in May, 1936, at Atlantic City as part of the annual conference of the National Probation Association. The Association sponsored a study of councils from 1936 to 1938 by Kenneth Beam, then director of the Los Angeles County coordinating councils. Beam found that councils had certain common characteristics in that they were organized on a community basis in small cities and on a neighborhood plan in large cities; included representatives of public and private agencies and civic groups; stressed lay participation; acted as coordinating, not operating, agencies; and had juvenile delinquency as a major or secondary interest.⁷ More than 350 coordinating councils were found in thirty states, California leading with 126 councils. Councils originated in at least three different ways: as

⁶ *Coordinating Councils in California*. Sacramento: State Department of Education, 1938.

⁷ Beam, Kenneth. *Coordinating Council Progress*. New York: National Probation Association, 1938.

a result of a local need which impelled community leaders to unite all forces; through using the approach of cooperative attack employed by other communities; and through promotional effort originated in a city, county, or state office.

During World War II community council activity was largely related to defense programs, and existing neighborhood and community councils became part of the larger sphere of the defense council. With the coming of victory and subsequent demise of the defense councils attention has now been redirected toward the solving of community needs and bettering of local social services. As Stone points out, the purpose of coordinating councils has remained the same through the years: (1) the coordination of social forces and agencies; (2) citizen participation and responsibility for community welfare.⁸

Types and Purposes

Today community and neighborhood councils of a specific and a general nature are found in every state. They include among their members representatives of government agencies, civic groups, private agencies and religious groups. They may or may not be sponsored by a public agency or council of social agencies. They usually include both professional and lay people. They may have an over-all or a specific interest. Their activities vary with the changing scene of community needs. They may be financed wholly or in part by public or private funds or by membership dues. They may employ a paid secretary full or part-time. They usually do not act as operating agencies.

"A community council may be described as an organization for community betterment through planned community study and action, and is comprised of representatives from the major civic, educational, governmental and welfare groups in the community."⁹ Types of community councils are well illustrated by those in Michigan. They consist of two major kinds, the general council and the specific council. The general community

⁸ Stone, Walter L. "History of Development of Community Coordinating Councils." *Community Coordination*, July-August, 1941.

⁹ *Michigan Community Councils*. Ann Arbor: Adult Education Program, University of Michigan, 1945, p. 4.

council includes members at large as well as representatives of civic, governmental, religious, business and labor organizations and social agencies. It is an over-all group and is interested in all phases of community betterment. It carries on discussion or action in a number of areas, such as adult education, research, youth activities and recreation. The purpose of the council varies according to the needs of the community in which it exists. Its membership is based on the factors of organization or interest. In 1944, fifty councils of the over-all type were to be found in Michigan, the majority in communities of from one thousand to two thousand population. The earliest was organized in 1924. Specialized councils in Michigan are organized primarily on the basis of interest, but the sources of members are the same as those of the general community council. The specialized council confines itself to a restricted area such as recreation, adult education, community planning, or youth activities and does not ordinarily have more than one major interest. In 1944 sixty-six councils of this type existed in Michigan; forty-three councils of social agencies; nineteen adult education councils; the Michigan Planning Commission; the Michigan Land Use Planning Committee; the Michigan Youth Guidance Commission; and the Michigan Recreation Association.

Purposes of community councils may be outlined as follows:

1. To develop cooperation among all groups and organizations interested in general or specific measures designed to provide a better community
2. To encourage the coordination of these groups and organizations in order that community services may more effectively meet community needs
3. To devise means of studying conditions, needs and resources relating to the welfare of the community
4. To plan a program of interpretation and education designed to develop an understanding by the general public of present and needed services
5. To secure action of a democratic and effective nature that will improve services and meet community needs

Neighborhood Councils

Neighborhood coordinating councils today are receiving much attention as a community organization approach. The term has come into use in a number of large cities since 1930. Such groups are particularly adapted to large cities and to natural neighborhood areas of middle sized and small towns. The usual steps of study, planning, cooperation, coordination and action in community organization are easily identified in the work of neighborhood councils. This type of council is concerned with problems close to the lives of council members. In large cities the neighborhood council is not only desirable but also essential to assist in over-all city planning of welfare needs. It cannot replace central planning but it does render such procedure more effective. Neighborhood councils, like community councils, include the following groups:

1. Laymen stimulated to organize as a result of a felt need in their neighborhood
2. Professional people from various social welfare agencies organized to study a neighborhood and formulate a plan of action to alleviate the urgent problems apparent or discovered
3. Laymen and professionals combined to provide a strong means of concerted attack upon social needs

Some of the problems of neighborhood councils today are related to development of neighborhood consciousness to the point where needs are recognized and willingness to act is evidenced by the people themselves; to financing the work of numerous small councils; to the relationships of neighborhood councils to total community councils and city planning; and to the relationships between neighborhood councils. The last point involves co-operative planning and action and determination of geographical boundaries of neighborhoods. In turn these considerations are related to neighborhood conflicts, characteristics and needs.

Sacramento Conference

In November, 1946, a conference was held in Sacramento, California, of leaders in regional, state and local organizations

concerned with community organization. Although the conferees discussed community organization with primary reference to the status and accomplishments of the movement in California the conclusions reached by them are of significance to community organization everywhere.¹⁰ The group concluded that all communities, regardless of size, should have some form of local organization concerned with needs in health, welfare and youth services as a means of stimulating coordination of resources and development of facilities and programs necessary to deal with such needs. In small communities one coordinating organization was suggested as sufficient. In large cities where both a council of social agencies and a central coordinating council might be feasible the group recommended joint cooperation and definition of functions. It also suggested that state and regional organizations associated with local programs should develop coordination on the state and regional levels.

RECREATION COUNCIL

Most coordinating councils have two major interests, juvenile delinquency and recreation. The former has been the largest single factor in the organization of councils while the latter, recreation, is reported more often than any other activity. Recreation is a popular concern of community councils. Its original importance was thought to be related to delinquency, but the modern council realizes that a good recreation service is a need of all in the community and that delinquency is a problem which has many more implications than can be resolved through recreation, although it will do its share as one of the many factors which can help alleviate the problem. Recreation, therefore, today becomes a major concern of coordinating councils because of its relationship to daily living in the community.

Individual Effort

In some communities individual groups or combinations of two or three groups serve as community recreation councils. This plan is not as effective or as representative as a community-wide

¹⁰ Pfeiffer, C. W. "Sacramento Conference on Community Organization." *Community Organization for Youth Services*, March, 1946, p. 2.

recreation advisory body. In most cases, however, the community-wide council develops as a logical outgrowth of the initial efforts of one, two or three groups. The P.T.A. is an outstanding example of a single organization pressing for the development of recreation opportunities where community-wide recreation councils or community councils do not exist. In certain respects it functions as a community or neighborhood recreation council. Groups such as the Lions, Kiwanis, Rotary, American Legion, Veterans of Foreign Wars, chambers of commerce and others can also be identified as single groups acting in some localities somewhat as community recreation councils. The effects of their efforts are clearly measurable but they fall short in two respects: they are not representative of the total community; and they do not have sufficient resources individually to meet the needs.

Sometimes the efforts of individual groups in the community are directed toward stimulation of provision for recreation and sometimes they are related to actual operation of some type of recreation program. In either case the individual group sooner or later reaches the conclusion that its efforts are not sufficient to meet needs which are of a widespread nature and that community-wide action is necessary. Good intentions of good people are not enough to insure adequate recreation planning. Professional recreation workers, too, have their limitations as do governmental bodies and private leisure-time agencies. But when they are all united their individual limitations are minimized through collective planning and action designed to pool all resources. The community council thus becomes a means of attaining effective community organization for recreation.

Origin

Recreation councils have arisen from the efforts of an individual or a group of individuals who recognized the need for the establishment of a recreation service or the improvement of an existing recreation system. In other instances the original impetus has come from public officials operating a current recreation service or who are about to establish a recreation program. Sometimes councils have been the result of cooperative efforts

of public and private welfare agency officials. In still other instances they have been organized as a section of a larger co-ordinating council interested in a number of community functions. The history of many recreation departments shows that a community advisory committee on recreation preceded the establishment of a recreation system. In such communities the laymen recognized a need for a leisure-time program long before the elected or appointed public officials. This story is told about a recreation consultant of a large midwestern state university who was requested to meet with a group whose spokesman indicated the members were interested in community recreation. As was his custom, the consultant arrived an hour or so in advance of the time set for the meeting in order to secure some information regarding the community. He asked the spokesman for the group, a middle aged housewife, whom her group represented. She replied: "We don't represent anybody—we're just the people." What a magnificent statement! American democracy at its best. The people had gathered to do something about a felt need in their lives.

Membership

Inclusiveness, rather than exclusiveness, should be the guiding factor in the selection of the council. A listing should be made of all social, civic, labor and religious groups and other forms of social organization in the community and each should be invited to name a representative to the recreation advisory council. In addition certain individuals not representative of groups or organizations should be invited to serve on the council because of a distinct contribution they may be able to make to its purpose and work. Public and private agency officials and board members have a place on the council and should be invited to join. Their presence assures participation from the outset of persons who are in a position to do something about the needs as determined by the council. Youth should be on the council either through the presence of representatives of youth organizations where they exist, or by selection of individual young people where no organized youth groups are available.

Purpose

To establish or to improve recreation services through planning and coordination is the basic purpose of the council. Within the scope of this purpose there may exist many projects such as fund raising, securing of facilities and conducting surveys. Where there is no recreation service available to all it becomes the duty of the council to present a case for inaugurating the program to the public officials deemed to be responsible for the basic recreation service. The council must be in a position to support its contentions with evidence as to why the program is necessary and plans as to how it may be carried on. Where the purpose is to improve an existing program evidence will have to be given as to the nature of the deficiencies and suggestions for improvement. Thus the council must organize a plan of work related to its purpose. Constructive suggestions based on a critical analysis of needs and resources will aid the council to fulfill its purpose. As an advisory rather than legal group, the council can best meet its purpose by being the voice of the people and truly representative of the community as a whole, of its needs and desires regarding recreation. It does this through its members who speak with authority. They are group representatives and are in a position to reflect the opinions and desires of their groups. The council serves also as a clearing house for ideas and recommendations in addition to acting as a planning agency. The inclusion of professional people on the council provides a means of professional and lay relationships founded in joint thinking and acting which should enhance the realization of the council's purpose. A blending of public opinion and professional skill will greatly improve the chance of adoption by responsible public officials of plans and recommendations forthcoming from the council.

Recreation Advisory Council and Legal Recreation Board

Recreation boards or commissions, park and recreation boards and school boards are the public bodies most often charged with recreation administration. Such boards are composed chiefly of laymen. These types of administration provide the community

with assurance that responsibility for determining policies will not be solely in the hands of professional people. While the board plan is much preferable to one man control of recreation, there is still need for a community recreation advisory council. They are complements. The purposes of the board and of the council are different. One is related to policies and administration; the other to community desires and a means of increased lay participation in community affairs. The council becomes a means of interpretation of public opinion, of support for the board and of interpreting to the community the work of the board. There is no substitute for the broad base of community representation and lay participation characteristic of the council plan. In large communities the recreation advisory council may be subdivided into neighborhood committees, thus affording an additional advantage to the recreation board. The alert and progressive recreation administrator and board will encourage and sponsor the development of a community recreation advisory council as a means of being certain the recreation service is in gear with the needs of the community.

Recreation Council and Operation of Recreation Programs

Although the purpose of the advisory council is not to actually conduct recreation programs, whether it so does will depend upon the needs in a community. In some cases it may be necessary for the council to demonstrate the need for new program offerings or extended opportunities before the recreation authority feels justified in taking over additional responsibilities. Recreation councils in a number of cities have established youth centers which later were taken over by the local recreation department. Where the council functions in harmony with the public recreation authority and the private agencies, the need for it to operate a recreation program, experimental or otherwise, is minimized. In localities where no organized program exists the council may find it expedient to sponsor certain activities and to engage leadership, while at the same time exerting its major influence in the direction of securing public acceptance of the responsibility for recreation. It is best, however, to keep the administrative

and the operating functions separate from the real purpose of the council, which is planning and coordination.

Certain specific projects may be undertaken by the recreation advisory council which will add to its meaning and stature. Programs of a special event nature or ones which require city-wide cooperation of many groups are well adapted to the structure of the council. Halloween celebrations, holiday parties and patriotic observances are examples. Activities closer to the purpose of the council include:

Interpreting community needs and agency programs.

Developing long range planning in recreation.

Coordinating public and private recreation agencies.

Conducting recreation surveys.

Supporting recreation referendums.

Holding annual conferences for laymen.

Preparing materials interpreting recreation.

Sponsoring leadership training institutes.

Gathering data on need for improvement or extension of the recreation services.

Recreation advisory councils may secure funds through donations from organizations and groups represented on them. In some councils each member group pays annual dues. Card parties, dances and neighborhood fairs are means often utilized as fund raising activities. Some councils are financed wholly or in part by public or private agencies.

Relationships

In many communities the advisory council has preceded and has been the means of bringing about the existence of the legal recreation authority. In other places the reverse is true. As the purpose of the council is to stimulate the establishment and improvement of recreation in the community it should take the lead in urging the creation of a recreation authority where one does not exist. Chapter VII provides a detailed discussion of the recreation authority, its various patterns and its duties and responsibilities. The advisory council wishing to create a public recreation authority must study the state and local legal regulations concerning recreation and the character of existing local

public agencies and boards. After careful consideration of good recreation administration practices and due allowance for local characteristics and preferences, the council should recommend a plan of administration and finance of public recreation for the community. Once the recreation authority has been established the council should adhere strictly to its advisory function. At no time should it attempt to legislate or execute in matters that are the province of the recreation authority or of any other agency or group in the community. The strength of the council lies in its functions of coordination, stimulation and pointing out of needs. To desert these for the urge to execute will surely lead to conflict, possible council disintegration and certain impairment of the community recreation services. Where the recreation authority has preceded the advisory council steps should be taken by the former to sponsor or at least encourage the formation of a council. Where this step is not taken there is evidence of lack of a progressive authority and ignorance of the place of the layman in the recreation affairs of his community.

Close association must be maintained between the recreation executive and the advisory council. The executive, the administrative officer of the recreation authority, may be the adviser of the recreation council. He interprets to the council the work of the authority and keeps the latter informed of the plans and activities of the council. He, as a professional person, brings his technical skill to the assistance of the council and helps it discover needs and gaps in the leisure-time opportunities of the community.

Evaluation

Self-evaluation is a process to which the recreation council must submit itself in order to determine its strength and weakness. Some of the points to be included in the evaluation are:

Number of organizations in the community represented on the council

Extent of active participation by those organizations represented

Method of determining officers

Numbers and types of committees

Distribution of work among council members

- Number and regularity of meetings
- Attendance at council meetings
- Adoption of a plan of procedure
- Method of financing council work
- Relationship between the council and the recreation authority
- Relationship between the council and the recreation executive
- Number and type of projects undertaken by the council
- Method of determining recreation needs in the community
- Rate of completion of projects adopted by the council
- Presence of a long-range program
- Presence of immediate objectives
- Method of keeping the community informed of the council's work
- Number and type of projects of other groups encouraged by the council

A brief consideration of some recreation councils now active in various cities will serve to illustrate their settings and functions.

St. Paul Playground Council

In 1920 the director of a city playground on the east side of St. Paul, Minnesota, received complaints that youths continued to loiter around the play center after the 10 p.m. closing hour. As a means of correcting the situation, he called together parents of children frequenting the playground. Together they developed plans for activities while the center was open and also plans for seeing that the youths departed to their homes when the playground closed each evening. The first meeting led to others and discussions branched out to include extended program content and the means to finance a more appealing program. Soon the parents decided to form themselves into a "booster club" for the neighborhood playground. Other neighborhoods followed this example and through the years a series of clubs grew up until all public recreation centers had one. In addition to supporting the work of the center staff and helping to raise supplementary funds, each club has a social program for its members. Each club is open to any adult over twenty-one. Any civic organization in the neighborhood may become a member upon payment

of prescribed dues and naming of two delegates to represent it. The clubs have a standard constitution and by-laws approved by the city recreation authority and there also exists a written agreement between the recreation department and the neighborhood clubs. Only these groups can conduct fund raising activities at the neighborhood recreation centers.

A playground council, a city-wide body, was created composed of six representatives of each booster club. This group meets monthly as does each of the local clubs. The city-wide council provides a means of community support for the municipal recreation department. It has demonstrated its influence as a reflector of public opinion more than once when serious financial and other issues have advanced to threaten the community's public recreation service.

Chicago Recreation Commission

In March, 1934, Mayor Edward J. Kelly appointed the Chicago Recreation Commission to provide a central organization for a study of the city's leisure-time needs and as a means of coordinating recreation plans locally. It has no legal powers. Both lay and professional people are on the Commission which is financed by an annual appropriation from the mayor's office. The Commission acts chiefly as a coordinating body and rarely carries out plans presented to it, preferring to refer them to the agency or group best equipped to handle specific issues. It stimulates and encourages progress in recreation through existing agencies. A number of committees have been formed for this purpose. Among them are committees on recreation and the city plan; Chicago recreation survey; extension of play spaces; annual city-wide recreation conference; wider use of the school plant; housing area relationships; recreation training institutes; and recreation and juvenile delinquency study.

One of the main duties of the Commission is to coordinate plans and services of the public and private agencies providing recreation opportunities in the city. It surveys and evaluates facilities and programs of public and private recreation agencies as well as commercial and industrial recreation activities. Another aspect of the Commission's work is the encouragement of

participation by the public in recreation programs and the stimulation of the programs. It also carries on a program of public education designed to develop an appreciation of Chicago opportunities in recreation and to arouse the interest of laymen in the recreation provisions in their neighborhoods. The Commission cooperates with any organization or group requesting its advice on recreation problems.

A significant factor of the Commission's work is that related to community coordination. It has encouraged and assisted the organization of some forty neighborhood or district recreation councils composed chiefly of laymen. These groups are in some cases committees of local community councils or separate district or community recreation committees. They all cooperate with the Commission and exert their influence on the recreation affairs of their locality. To date their work has been chiefly the extension of local recreation facilities and opportunities. Committee members of the Commission work with the local recreation councils. City-wide groups, such as veterans' organizations, church groups, business and service associations have also appointed recreation committees to work with the Commission and with local recreation councils.

Among the major accomplishments of the Commission are the Chicago Recreation Survey, a five volume study completed after three years of work; a series of 270 maps showing recreation facilities in each Chicago community; field service to local recreation councils; publication of a city-wide leisure time directory; the conduct of recreation training institutes to fit laymen to better lead groups with which they are associated or to prepare them to function as volunteer leaders in various recreation agencies; and the annual city-wide recreation conference. The conference is an exceptional accomplishment. It brings together lay and professional people and public and private agency officials from city-wide and community recreation councils and agencies. Recent results of the Commission's work are seen in the publishing of four pamphlets by the church and recreation committee for the purpose of helping churchmen to establish recreation programs or to broaden existing ones; in the successful effort of the committee on recreation and city plan to get all groups planning for the extension of recreation in the city to cooperate with others

to make their plans most effective in meeting the needs of the people; and in the work of the public museums and libraries committee which brought together representatives of all the libraries and museums to plan ways of increasing the recreation values of these institutions and closer relating them to the people.

Projects to which the Commission has dedicated itself for the near future include: wider recreation use of Chicago public schools including the extension of school camping programs; continual stimulation of church sponsored community recreation programs by the two thousand churches of the city; extension of means of bringing to the people complete and interesting information on recreation opportunities; stimulation of professional recreation leadership training in universities and colleges; further stress on training institutes for laymen; and finally, the erection of a large municipal civic and social center.

The two foregoing examples of city-wide and community recreation councils illustrate the importance of such groups even where a local recreation authority, or authorities, exists charged with legal responsibilities for the conduct of a recreation service. In St. Paul the municipal department of recreation conducts the city-wide public recreation service directed by a superintendent of recreation who is under the direction of a city councilman in the city commission form of government. The local booster clubs and the city-wide playground council are the means of lay participation in the recreation service. Such organizations become doubly important in cities such as St. Paul which do not have a recreation board or commission as part of local government and whose recreation affairs are in the hands of a single executive directed by an elected officer. Public schools of St. Paul are authorized by the Minnesota Recreation Law of 1937 to function as a public recreation agency. To date due to financial difficulties and lack of leadership they have not done so. When they do enter the field of community recreation an advisory lay council will be of great importance and should be introduced as an early step in the process for the schools like the city recreation department are in the hands of a single executive responsible to an elected officer with no legal board which would provide for lay participation.

In Chicago, also, the importance of the recreation commission and of local recreation councils is not diminished by the presence

of public bodies legally responsible for recreation. This city has a multiplicity of public agencies as well as private organizations conducting leisure-time programs. The Chicago Park District; the Board of Education; the City Council; the Bureau of Parks, Recreation and Aviation; and the Cook County Forest Preserve are the major public bodies concerned with recreation. They are supplemented by numerous miscellaneous agencies such as public libraries and museums which have a recreation function. To these must be added the vast number of private and voluntary agencies of a city-wide and community nature that offer leisure-time opportunities of a varied character. The recreation commission, transcending as it does the interests and programs of individual agencies, public and private, represents the community approach to seeking an efficient and extensive pattern of leisure opportunities for all the people, utilizing all resources. Although most of the public recreation agencies and all of the private organizations in the city possess lay boards the position and contribution of the Chicago Recreation Commission are unique. It, together with the local community recreation councils or committees, provides a coordinated approach to leisure-time problems.

A Midwestern City

In the past many local recreation departments have waited until confronted with an emergency situation before taking steps to stimulate the organization of lay support. Prevalence of an alarming rate of juvenile delinquency; vandalism to park and recreation properties; and a precarious financial position have been three of the major reasons that have impelled recreation authorities to seek citizen aid through the establishment of recreation advisory councils. Today, however, such groups are recognized as basic to the pattern of community organization for recreation and their desirability as a vehicle for the participation of people in the affairs of their community is held by progressive recreation authorities to be the main justification for their existence. This recognition is not universal by any means and many councils still come into being only as a result of the threat of impending disaster. In a certain midwestern city which could boast of a community recreation system of many years standing

administered by a commission of public officials and laymen, the city council decided that its beautiful, complete and only community recreation center building built in remembrance of the armed forces of World War I should be leased to an industrial concern for the manufacturing of men's shirts. The city fathers felt they were justified in this decision by the employment which would result. Many business men of the community concurred. Many others in the city, uninformed as to the significance of the proposal, also voiced approval of the plan. The city council decided it was legally advisable to submit the issue to the voters. One month before voting day the recreation authorities came to the conclusion that it would be necessary to rally community support against the measure. As they had never suggested or encouraged the formation of a community recreation advisory council they were without this potent force and had to start from the beginning.

That opinion was divided on the subject was apparent from the reactions of certain individuals and civic organizations when they first heard of the plan. The feeling of youthful participants in the center's program was summed up by one youngster who said, "They can't make underwear here—this is dedicated to youth." The recreation consultant of the state university was called in to assist in organizing a recreation advisory committee to develop plans for defeating the proposal. A committee was formed composed of professional and lay people. Social and civic groups were invited to name representatives to serve on the committee. Publicity and interpretative programs were launched. A mass meeting was held. Members of the advisory committee spoke before numerous groups and organizations. Representatives of groups serving on the committee rallied the support of their organizations and gradually a webb of opposition to the plan spread throughout the community. The committee's efforts were directed not toward the negative approach of condemning the entry of a new industrial factor but rather in the direction of awakening community cognizance of the place of recreation and proper facilities for it in community life. The proposal, however, was not defeated. The recreation center of the people was lost. Of importance for future progress was the resultant recognition by the recreation authority of the place of an advisory council

and the need for keeping the community abreast of the needs of the recreation service. It is to be noted the advisory council is now a basic, permanent part of community organization for recreation in that city.

COMMUNITY RECREATION COUNCILS AND COUNCILS OF SOCIAL AGENCIES

The question of the advisability of and the need for community or neighborhood recreation advisory councils in cities which have a coordinating influence represented by councils of social agencies (also called "community councils," with increasing frequency) and their group work and recreation divisions is one which merits some consideration. The correct answer will in part be determined by the characteristics, needs and problems in the individual community as they relate to leisure-time services. Some cities have both types of coordination. They may be sponsored by the council of social agencies in one city and in another the community coordinating council plan for recreation may not be a part of the council of social agencies. Where the community and neighborhood councils are related specifically to the program of the public recreation authority, they are much more likely to be apart from the council of social agencies than in cities where the community councils' interests are more widely representative.

What is the difference between a council of social agencies and a community coordinating council? Community Chests and Councils, Incorporated say this about a council of social agencies:¹¹ "A council (of social agencies) is generally composed of representatives of public and private social welfare and health agencies, and certain interested individuals. . . . The purpose of a council is to bring about improvement in the quality and adequacy of the social and health services of the community and better to relate these services to the community's needs. . . . Theoretically the council is a program planning body, providing a complement to the financial purpose of the chest." Councils of social agencies ordinarily do not exist apart from community chests. Councils exist in all cities of over 500,000 and in almost

¹¹ *Questions and Answers About Community Chests and Councils of Social Agencies*. New York: Community Chests and Councils, Inc., 1938.

all cities from 100,000 to 500,000. Many cities from 25,000 to 100,000 have councils of social agencies. They exist in approximately 350 cities. In large cities they are an established and desirable method of community organization.

One writer has stated that there is no place for two councils in cities of 100,000 or less, in discussing councils of social agencies and community coordinating councils.¹² There is much to be said, however, for coordinating councils in such cities as supplementary to the council of social agencies. The latter relies heavily upon professional leadership, whereas community councils stress lay participation in community and neighborhood affairs. In many small communities they act without professional guidance in certain fields and with limited expert resource people in other areas of service. Councils of social agencies are financed almost wholly by private funds and are made up predominately of representatives of private agencies. Coordinating councils are sometimes supported by public funds and in the smaller communities they have a higher proportion of public agency representatives.

Where both types of councils exist a problem of coordination of the coordinating councils arises. The two have the same basic objectives and must coordinate their functions if they are to properly discharge their responsibilities to the community. The funds which support the services both councils are interested in come from the community either in the form of tax receipts or voluntary contributions. "The average American community spends \$25 per capita for health, welfare and recreation services. Thus the average community of 100,000 population spends \$2,500,000 in taxes and contributions. . . ." ¹³ In the planning of these expenditures the people of the community should be adequately represented. They are the source of funds and the recipients of services.

Recreation may be a specific and total purpose of a community council or it may be one of the interests of a council dedicated

¹² Leuenberger, Walter A. "What's In A Name?" *Community Coordination*, May-June, 1940.

¹³ Thompson, Guy. "Obedience to the Unenforceable." *Community Organization for Youth Services*, June, 1946, p. 7.

to coordination in the general area of health, welfare and recreation services. As a sole interest of a coordinating group, recreation will prosper best. Its importance in community life fully justifies intensive concentration by a body of laymen and professionals. A less satisfactory arrangement is to treat recreation through the divided attention of an over-all coordinating group interested in other community services as well. If this plan is followed a committee of the general body should be appointed to devote its time to recreation. Again, however, the size of the community, its social institutions, and the needs and wishes of the community members will combine to influence the type of coordinative pattern to be decided upon. Regardless of the individual pattern agreed upon, full consideration should be given to recreation as a community, not agency, problem and to the relationships of recreation to other community services.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The 1946 National Conference on the Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency produced the following principles and recommendations relating to coordination of community recreation:

1. An effort should be made to integrate and coordinate the physical and human resources of all local agencies and organizations toward the end of joint planning and action for recreation.
2. Coordination of and planning for recreation should be continuously related to comprehensive community planning.
3. A council for coordinating recreation should be established in each community, and if such an instrument is in existence effort should be made to strengthen it.
4. In large communities consideration should be given to the establishment of coordinating councils on a neighborhood basis.
5. Local coordinating councils should give serious consideration to such problems as duplication of agency services, spheres of operation, planning of capital improvements, etc.
6. Coordinating councils should extend themselves in creating favorable public opinion, negotiating advances for the work and campaigning for high standards of leadership, program and facilities.

7. Coordinating councils should encourage cooperative undertakings, such as (a) training institutes, and (b) joint use of facilities, etc.¹⁴

PROFESSIONAL GUIDANCE

There is a decided trend toward central coordinating bodies supplying professional guidance full or part-time to unit and neighborhood councils. Some councils maintain their own executive secretaries. Examples of this movement have been pointed out with reference to Minneapolis community councils, the Chicago Recreation Commission and the Cleveland Welfare Federation. At present community welfare councils provide professional personnel to assist community councils in some forty cities and many more are making plans to do so. California leads all other states in the number of paid community council professional workers. In 1946 the professional people engaged in community council work in California organized the California Coordinating Council Executives Association. Evidence indicates that the trend toward the employment of professional workers of this type will continue and will expand as new councils arise throughout the country and as existing coordinating councils feel the need for technical guidance and assistance of a continuing nature.

SPECIFIC CONCERNs

Local community organization for recreation is concerned with recreation opportunities in specific as well as in general situations. Three good examples are industrial recreation, hospital recreation and recreation for older people. Each has considerable potentialities in the area of community relationships.

Industrial Recreation

Industrial recreation has received stimuli from several sources in recent years including the Industrial Recreation Association and the industrial recreation section of the National Recreation

¹⁴ *The National Conference on the Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency. Summaries of Recommendations for Action.* Washington, D. C.: Department of Justice, Government Printing Office, 1947, p. 61.

Association, The Athletic Institute, Purdue University and the provisions made by industry itself during the last war, aided by assistance from the Recreation Division of the Office of Community War Services of the Federal Security Agency. The purpose of industrial recreation is identical with the basic philosophy of all recreation. It, like recreation programs emanating from other sources, has methods of finance, organization and administration peculiar to its setting.

Management and labor together recognize the fact that what a man does in his leisure off the job determines to a measurable degree what he does on the job. Joint financing, policy making and administration involving management and employes plus trained leadership are characteristic of good patterns of recreation opportunities in industry. There is an increasing tendency to include the families of employes as well as the employes in the recreation programs sponsored by industry. There appears to be a definite correlation between size of the firm in terms of numbers of employes and frequency of availability of industrial recreation.

The community relationship aspect of industrial recreation is being given increasing attention. Although some industrial and business firms provide certain recreation areas and facilities, they necessarily must utilize community areas and facilities and leadership in varying degrees. Public and private recreation agencies must consider these needs in their recreation planning. A new trend is related to industry's realization that it has something to contribute to the recreation life of the community. This is manifested by the use of industrial recreation leaders in certain aspects of community recreation and by industry sponsorship of, or participation in, various special features in community recreation. Industrial recreation will continue to grow, particularly where management-employe partnership, professional leadership and good community relationships exist.

The recognition by management of the place of recreation in the good life is manifested not only by sponsorship of industrial recreation, but also by inclusion of availability of good recreation opportunities as a criterion in selection of sites for location of new industrial plants.

Hospital Recreation

War experiences of the medical profession are to a degree responsible for the modern trend in hospital recreation. The therapeutic values of recreation are many and are recognized as factors contributing to the treatment of personality disorders, mental illness and physical disability. Beyond these, however, a need exists to make available to those hospitalized for extended periods, such as many of the 118,000 veterans in 131 veterans' hospitals, recreation opportunities which they are not able to provide for themselves or reach by themselves.

The American Red Cross with its some 250 professional recreation staff members in military hospitals and the Veterans Administration with over 900 members in veterans' hospitals, have done much to bring recognition to this special field. The community relationship aspect of recreation comes to the fore here also. The hospital program has need for a variety of community resources, including volunteer leadership, and they can best be obtained through the efforts of public and private agencies and community organizations working in cooperation with the hospital recreation staff.

Much research is needed in hospital recreation to shed light on the exact influences recreation is capable of exerting in a hospital setting. Experiences of the Veterans Administration program should be of strategic value here. Objectives of the recreation service in veterans' hospitals are:

1. To assist in the recovery of the patient
2. To provide opportunities typical of the home and community environment from which the patient has come and will return
3. To help improve morale and sustain it at a high level
4. To provide opportunities for satisfactory living and personal growth¹⁵

Recreation for Older People

Recreation like other human needs must shape its character to fit the people whom it is intended to serve. The changing

¹⁵ *The Recreation Service—Its Objectives and Methods*. Washington, D. C.: Veterans Administration, Information Bulletin, January 28, 1948.

nature of our population suggests that community organization for recreation give attention to recreation opportunities for older people. Only 850,000 Americans were sixty-five or over in 1860. In 1945 there were 9,920,000 in that age group. Today there are over fifteen million people past sixty in the United States and this number will increase. Our life span has increased from forty-seven years in 1900 to sixty-three today. There are perhaps six million people past sixty-five who are dependent on others for support. They are mostly those who are not eligible for social security benefits. Today two of every five jobs are not included in old-age insurance benefits.

The community recreation structure must give increased attention to the recreation needs of older people for only a small group—less than one hundred thousand—is in old peoples' homes. Recreation is no less important than food and shelter for older people. A number of recreation agencies are experimenting with programs for those past sixty and some have sound programs well established. Professional recreation training schools are giving attention to the needs of this group in the preparation of prospective recreation leaders. An excellent example of recreation services that can be provided for older people is afforded by a score of clubs and programs developed in Cleveland by the Benjamin Rose Institute.

A large midwest life insurance company recently made a study of the desires of several thousand people relative to the day when they will no longer be gainfully employed. More than one half stated that they would like to engage in community service work preferably for children or youth. Therein lies certain implications for recreation.

Recreation for the Handicapped

The recreational needs of certain other groups such as the physically handicapped, the blind and those in need of physical, emotional or mental rehabilitation are further specific areas of concern. Recreation guidance, adaptation of facilities and equipment and special leadership techniques are some of the factors involved which require extended study and experimentation.

Recreation Guidance

Included in the community organization for recreation plan must be provision for recreation guidance, particularly for young people. It is of importance, of course, for all persons who can benefit from it including those with personality maladjustments. The school, a primary agency for education for leisure, is also a basic resource for recreation guidance and at least a portion of its personnel should be trained in this type of guidance technique. All community resources, however, dealing with children and youth should be concerned with guidance in recreation and should relate their efforts through a coordinated plan.

SUGGESTED READINGS

Books

- Brunner, Edmund. *Working With Rural Youth*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1942.
- McMillen, Wayne. *Community Organization for Social Welfare*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. Chapter XIV.
- Morgan, Arthur E. *The Small Community*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1942. Chapter XII.
- Ogden, Jess and Ogden, Jean. *Small Communities in Action*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1946.
- Toward a New Curriculum*. Washington, D. C.: Department of Supervisors and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, Yearbook, 1944. Chapter X.

ARTICLES

- Alinsky, S. D. "Back of the Yards." *Progressive Education*, February, 1945.
- Baarts, Raymond E. and Davison, A. R. "Integration of Health and Welfare Planning with City Planning." *Proceedings National Conference Social Work*, 1945.
- Beam, Kenneth. "Coordinating Council Progress 1939-1940." *Community Coordination*, May-June, 1940.
- Bleustein, Abraham. "American Federation of Labor Participation in Health and Welfare Planning." *Proceedings National Conference Social Work*, 1945.
- Bradley, Esther R. "An Evaluation of the Los Angeles Coordinating Councils." *Community Coordination*, July-August, 1941.

- Cloyes, C. "Small Town Help Yourself! The Small Town Manual for Community Action." *School Executive*, November, 1942.
- Cook, L. A. "Organizing Communities for Action." *School Review*, November, 1941.
- Eckert, Ralph G. "Psychology of Coordination." *Community Organization for Youth Services*, December, 1946.
- Farra, Kathryn. "The Who, What and How of Neighborhood Organization." *Community Coordination*, November-December, 1940.
- Friermood, Harold T. "Educating for Leisure in Private Agencies." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1948.
- Granger, Lester B. "Educational and Promotional Process in Community Organization." *Proceedings National Conference Social Work*, 1947. New York: Columbia University Press, 1948.
- Harbin, E. O. "The Church and Recreation." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1948.
- Hill, F. E. "Coordination of Public and Private Agencies." *Adult Education Journal*, June, 1942.
- Kerr, F. R. "Special Services in the Veterans' Administration." *Recreation*, August, 1947.
- Leuenberger, Walter A. "What's in a Name?" *Community Coordination*, May-June, 1940.
- Lindeman, Eduard C. "New Patterns of Community Organization." *Proceedings National Conference Social Work*, 1937.
- Miles, C. and Mulholland, W. D. "Organization for Recreation." *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, October, 1945.
- Misner, P. J. "Work of a Community Coordinating Council." *Teachers College Journal*, November, 1941.
- Mixon, John L. "The Church Finds Its Community." *Community Coordination*, January-February, 1942.
- Nelson, Lowry. "Planning and Organizing Cooperative Community Projects." *Social Education*, February, 1943.
- Neumeyer, Martin H. "Self-Study of Los Angeles County Coordinating Councils." *Community Coordination*, September-October, 1941.
- Perreault, Clayton L. "Industrial Recreation and Community Relations." *Recreation*, December, 1947.
- Perlis, Leo. "Congress of Industrial Organizations in Health and Welfare Planning." *Proceedings National Conference Social Work*, 1945.
- Pfeiffer, C. W. "Sacramento Conference on Community Organization." *Community Organization for Youth Services*, March, 1946.

- "Recommended Practices and Policies for Industrial Recreation." *Youth Leaders Digest*, June, 1947.
- Robb, Lester H. "Neighborhood Coordinating Councils in Cincinnati." *Community Coordination*, July-August, 1941.
- Robinson, Charles A. "Community Organization in Small Communities." *Community Coordination*, May-June, 1940.
- Shaw, John. "Community Planning for Recreation." *Washington State Curriculum Journal*, May, 1944.
- Sorenson, Roy. "Planning Recreational Services for a Community." *Proceedings National Conference Social Work*, 1947. New York: Columbia University Press, 1948.
- Stone, Walter L. "History of the Development of Coordinating Councils." *Community Coordination*, July-August, 1941.
- Thompson, Guy. "Obedience to the Unenforceable." *Community Organization for Youth Services*, June, 1946.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

- A Guide to Community Coordination*. Los Angeles: Coordinating Councils, Inc., 1941.
- A Program for Community Action*. St. Paul: Minnesota Postwar Council, 1947.
- Beam, Kenneth. *Coordinating Council Progress*. New York: National Probation Association, 1938.
- Brunner, Edmund. *Community Organization*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1942.
- Chicago Recreation Commission—What It Is*. Chicago Recreation Commission, 1945.
- Community Cooperation for Social Welfare*. New York: National Probation Association, Yearbook, 1937.
- Coordinating Councils in California*. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1938.
- Dahir, James. *The Neighborhood Unit Plan—Its Spread and Acceptance*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1948.
- Diehl, Leonard J. and Eastwood, Floyd. *Industrial Recreation*. Lafayette: Purdue University, 1940.
- First Annual Report*. Baltimore Council of Social Agencies, 1936.
- First Ten Years 1934-1944*. Chicago Recreation Commission, Tenth Annual Report, 1944.
- Gardner, Ella. *Development of a Leisure-Time Program in Small Cities and Towns*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Labor, Government Printing Office, 1937.

- Health and Welfare Planning in the Small Community.* New York: Community Chests and Councils, Inc., 1945.
- Hospital Recreation.* American Recreation Society Quarterly Bulletin, May, 1947.
- How to Organize a Community Council.* Boston: Metropolitan Conference for Social Planning, 1941.
- It Can Happen in Your Town.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1945.
- It's About Time.* Indianapolis: Governor's Advisory Committee on Recreation, Indiana Economic Council, 1948.
- Michigan Community Councils.* Ann Arbor: Adult Education Program, University of Michigan, 1945.
- Middle City—Community Organization for Smaller Cities.* Ottawa: Canadian Welfare Council, 1944.
- Organizing a Community Council:* Lansing: Michigan State Department of Public Instruction, 1944.
- Our Children's Future.* Indianapolis: American Legion National Headquarters, 1947.
- Promoting and Organizing Recreation in Small Communities.* Milwaukee: Wisconsin Recreation Association, 1947.
- Public Agency—Council Relationships.* New York: Community Chests and Councils, Inc., 1946.
- Questions and Answers About Community Chests and Councils of Social Agencies.* New York: Community Chests and Councils, Inc., 1938.
- Recreation and the Church.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1946.
- Recreation for Industrial Workers.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1945.
- Recreation for Youth.* Washington, D. C.: National Conference on the Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency, Government Printing Office, 1947.
- Recreation for Older People.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1947.
- Recreation Service—Special Services Manual.* Washington, D. C.: Veterans' Administration, 1948.
- Recreation While on the Mend.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1944.
- Ross, Murray G. *Community Councils.* Ottawa: Canadian Council of Education for Citizenship, 1945.
- Small Town Manual for Community Action.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Commerce, Government Printing Office, 1942.

- The Community Approach to Juvenile Delinquency.* New York: National Probation Association, Yearbook, 1936.
- The Community Can Do It.* Sydney: Australian Broadcasting Co., 1945.
- The Governor's Conference on Youth Welfare:* Sacramento: California Youth Authority, January, 1948.
- The Recreation Service—Its Objectives and Methods.* Washington, D. C.: Veterans' Administration. Information Bulletin, January 28, 1948.
- What About Us?* A Report of Community Recreation for Young People. Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Office of Community War Services, Recreation Division, Government Printing Office, 1945.
- What Can We Do in Our Town?* New York: National Recreation Association, 1945.
- Why Church Recreation Programs.* Chicago Recreation Commission, 1945.
- Youth Center Evaluation.* Ann Arbor: Adult Education Program, University of Michigan, 1946.

CHAPTER V

State and National Community Organization for Recreation —

Inter-dependence and inter-relationships between and among local, state, regional and national levels in social welfare structure render importance to the existence of community organization plans on all these levels. In many instances the poor development of local coordination for recreation in the past has been due not only to deficiencies within the community itself, but also to the lack of attention on higher levels to devising plans, methods and techniques which would in turn stimulate and facilitate local accomplishments. The broad view of community organization allows for the inclusion of state and national aspects and the term "community" may justly refer to a state or a nation.

STATE LEVEL COORDINATION

"The development of coordinating, planning and joint action on a state-wide basis in the field of health, welfare and recreation seems destined to be one of the distinguishing features of the current period in community organization history."¹ Present interest and action of states in community organization for health, welfare and recreation is widespread and indicates that states are experiencing the same motivations and problems which their communities have encountered in local community organization efforts. A need has been felt in the state for coordination of plans and action and it has been given expression by one or more interested groups. Often several groups have simultaneously

¹ Memorandum, *Community Organization for Health and Welfare on a State-Wide Basis*. New York: Community Chests and Councils, Inc., 1946, p. 1. (Mimeographed)

become vocal on a subject which may cover the total area of health, welfare and recreation, but more often it is a segment of the field, such as recreation or youth service. Many of the groups view the problem from individual or specialized considerations. One may be interested in legislation, another in surveys, another in administrative coordination and still others in special commissions, finances, programs of action or joint planning. In any event, determination of need; rallying of resources; inclusion of all interests; respect for the integrity of individuals, agencies, groups and organizations; study of the problem; cooperation of laymen and professionals; determination of a plan of action; and execution of the plan agreed upon are the factors to be considered just as they are in community organization on the local level.

Rise of State Responsibilities

Early state interest and function in recreation were first evidenced in the beginnings of state park systems and later through enactment of enabling legislation to permit use of school properties for community purposes and to allow municipalities to establish recreation systems and levy taxes for their support. Accompanying these developments were the sporadic rise of recreation services among various state agencies and departments and the provision for some attention to the recreation needs of people through the agricultural extension services and general extension divisions of state colleges and universities. The depression era following 1929 brought state sponsorship of federal recreation projects. World War II saw accelerated state activity in recreation by means of the work of recreation divisions of defense councils. The post-war period brought permanent state recreation committees; special state recreation commissions; state youth authorities; recreation consultant services of universities, colleges and state departments; coordination of state functions in recreation; and increased activity on the part of all agencies having recreation responsibilities on the state level.

The failure of some states and the slowness of others to accept responsibilities in recreation are due partially, but not entirely, to little foresight on the part of state government officials. The

following reasons may be cited for slow progress in this area in the past:

1. Lack of understanding of the common need aspect of recreation and the significance of planned provision for leisure-time opportunities
2. Lack of concerted efforts of professional and lay leaders to interpret the need for state concern for recreation
3. Lack of professional and aggressive leadership among state agencies that would lead to more complete realization of the need for and the acceptance of state responsibility
4. Existence of certain aspects of recreation as primary, secondary or incidental functions of various state departments resulting in defective organization and lack of coordination. This has meant failure to recognize the nature of specialized recreation services in terms of their relation to the wholeness of recreation opportunities
5. Inadequate financing of current state functions in recreation; reluctance to spend funds on intangible values such as those accruing from recreation which can be measured only in terms of long range values.

It would not be fair to limit the above to an indictment of the state alone for the same deficiencies may be identified as related to lack of adequate recreation opportunities in local communities. The community, however, should be able to look to the state, not for solutions to its problems, but for encouragement, stimulation and consultation as to the means of marshalling community resources to meet community needs.

Recreation

Most local community services such as health and education can find their counterpart in the organizational pattern of state government. In the past recreation has not been able to point out many relationships of this type. True, many state departments and divisions thereof, the number and type varying greatly among the several states, are charged with one or more functions,

usually of a specialized type, which are related to recreation. In but a few cases, however, have the responsibilities for co-ordination of state level functions and for the stimulation of local recreation been fixed. In still fewer instances has the state clearly accepted recreation as one of its responsibilities. Today many facts indicate that states are entering into recreation in a systematic and orderly fashion. Most of the developments are coming as a result of professional and lay leadership within the states. Some have received assistance from the National Recreation Association and the Recreation Division of the Federal Security Agency. Recreation sections of state defense councils have added their influence to the trend, but most often the state level developments are the result of two factors: (1) a resumption of pre-war movements headed in the direction of state coordination and encouragement of local recreation; and (2) a more widespread realization by professionals and laymen alike of the place of recreation in daily living and of the need for all available forces to be brought to bear in a coordinated manner upon devising means of establishing and maintaining a recreation service available to all in every community of the state.

A healthy sign is, on the one hand, the uniformity of state concern and, on the other, the diversity that exists among the various plans so far adopted in the states that have to date organized a state recreation plan. In the majority of instances professional and lay leaders have joined together to urge and recommend some form of state participation. Advisory recreation committees of a state-wide nature composed of public agency, private agency and lay representatives have been appointed by many governors. Objectives are to develop a means of better coordinating existing state functions in recreation; to provide a state level resource for local communities; and to devise an instrument of state government to accomplish the first two purposes. At that point, happily, the general uniformity ends, and diversity enters into the methods of accomplishing the objectives and into the plans that finally are decided upon to designate the administrative pattern and the mechanics of operation. Structure of state government, numbers and types of present state agencies with a recreation function and preferences of the people all combine

to make necessary a plan which will best fit the needs of the individual state. Thus coordination of recreation on the state level must be approached with the same respect for the law of variance that characterizes community organization for local recreation. The broadness of recreation and its influence upon and affiliation with other areas of life activity do not change when the transition is made from community to state.

Common state recreation services already in existence can be identified among the following agencies: parks, conservation, youth, education, highways, libraries, extension divisions, universities, planning boards, and state recreation advisory councils.² Extent and competence of the services, and of their coordination, vary among the states. Each of these agencies is expanding its thinking and its services in recreation. State departments of education are adding recreation consultants to their staffs. They are also providing visual aids and publications to stimulate recreation in the school program. Some states allow financial reimbursement for local school district recreation programs. State park departments today hold recreation to be one of their main functions. They are expanding their staffs to include recreation planners and leaders. State conservation departments are stressing education in conservation and the recreation aspects of conservation. They are working with education departments (Michigan is a notable example) to bring conservation, education and recreation into effective relationships. State forestry bureaus are advancing recreation in rank order of importance in their functions. State library departments are expanding services to reach all and are giving attention to books on recreation. State universities and colleges are stressing recreation consultant services to communities, and are also expanding professional recreation training opportunities as well as providing orientation in leisure education and recreation skills for all students. State planning boards give certain types of service to communities in the field of recreation. The Wisconsin State Planning Board provides the services of a landscape architect to state agencies and local communities to assist in the design of recreation areas and facilities. The Pennsylvania State Planning Board has been interested in

² For a comprehensive account of state agencies in recreation see *Recreation*, June, 1946, whole issue.

recreation for many years and has given assistance to other state agencies as well as to local communities. This Board has compiled a digest of recreation legislation in Pennsylvania and distributed it to communities. In some cases state planning boards undertake recreation surveys at the request of local communities.

Discussion of recent developments which have already brought about or are designed to develop better coordination of existing services on the state level and creation of consultant services to local communities follows.

North Carolina Recreation Commission

Recognition by the State Recreation Committee of the Office of Civilian Defense of the need for coordination of all recreation efforts on the state level was the beginning of the North Carolina Recreation Commission, established by state legislation in 1945. Professional and lay leaders joined to devise plans for creation of the Commission as a part of state government. In order to clear the path the respective heads of the three major departments functioning in recreation—education, conservation and public welfare—went on record as agreeing that it was not the job of his agency to coordinate recreation functions of the state. The next step was to secure the governor's support of recreation as a distinct and mature service not tied as a secondary concern to the apron strings of another major service. The governor agreed to sponsor a bill in the legislature to create a state recreation commission. An important procedure in expediting passage of the bill, which was adopted without opposition, was securing approval of the plan by more than a score of statewide civic, social and service organizations, such as the American Legion, the Grange and the P.T.A. Each of these groups passed a resolution in its state convention favoring adoption of the bill.

The North Carolina Recreation Commission has four ex-officio members: the governor and heads of the state departments of education, conservation and public welfare. It has seven appointed members, a director and an assistant director, and an advisory committee of twenty-nine members, ten representing recreation activity fields and nineteen representing lay groups and

organizations. A number of agencies, state, national and federal, are ex-officio consultants to the advisory committee. The law creating the North Carolina Commission follows in its entirety.

Commission Bill³

Whereas, the contribution of recreation to the health, education, economy and general welfare of the people has become universally recognized and accepted; and

Whereas, the lack of recreational opportunities for persons in the armed services, as well as civilians, became apparent shortly after the United States entered the war; and

Whereas, under authority of Public Laws one thousand nine hundred and forty-three, Chapter seven hundred and six, conferring upon the Governor certain emergency war powers, a recreation committee was established in June, one thousand nine hundred and forty-three to meet this pressing need in North Carolina; and

Whereas, experience gained by this emergency committee has shown the immediate need for a state recreation commission; Now, therefore, the General Assembly of North Carolina do enact

Section 1. *Recreation Commission.*—There is hereby created an agency to be known as the North Carolina Recreation Commission.

Section 2. *Definitions.*—(1) RECREATION, for the purposes of this Act, is defined to mean those activities which are diversionary in character and which aid in promoting entertainment, pleasure, relaxation, instruction, and other physical, mental, and cultural developments and experiences of a leisure-time nature.

(2) COMMISSION means the North Carolina Recreation Commission.

(3) COMMITTEE means the Advisory Recreation Committee.

Section 3. *Membership of Recreation Commission; term.*—(1) The Recreation Commission shall consist of seven members, appointed by the Governor, and the Governor, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Commissioner of Public Welfare and Director of the Department of Conservation and Development as members ex officio.

³ *North Carolina Recreation Commission.* Raleigh: North Carolina Recreation Commission, 1945.

(2) In making appointments to the commission the Governor shall choose persons, in so far as possible, who understand the recreational interests of rural areas, municipalities, private membership groups and commercial enterprises. The commission shall elect, with the approval of the Governor, one member to act as chairman. At least one member of the commission shall be a woman, and at least one member shall be a Negro. A majority of the commission shall constitute a quorum, but only when at least four of the appointed members are present.

(3) For the initial term of the appointed members of the commission, one shall be appointed for a term of one year, one for a term of two years, one for a term of three years, one for a term of four years, one for a term of five years, and two for a term of six years; and thereafter, the successor of each member shall be appointed for a term of four years and until his successor is appointed and qualified.

(4) Any appointed member of the commission may be removed by the Governor.

(5) Vacancies in the commission shall be filled by the Governor for the unexpired term.

(6) The commission shall meet quarterly in January, April, July and October, on a date to be fixed by the chairman. The commission may be convoked at such other times as the Governor or chairman may deem necessary.

(7) Members of the commission shall receive reasonable travel and maintenance expenses while attending meetings, but they shall not be reimbursed for travel and maintenance expenses for longer than four days for any one meeting.

Section 4. Duties of the Commission.—It shall be the duty of the commission:

(1) To study and appraise recreational needs of the State and to assemble and disseminate information relative to recreation.

(2) To cooperate in the promotion and organization of local recreational systems for counties, municipalities, townships, and other political subdivisions of the State, and to aid them in designing and laying out recreational areas and facilities, and to advise them in the planning and financing of recreational programs.

(3) To aid in recruiting, training, and placing recreation workers, and promote recreation institutes and conferences.

(4) To establish and promote recreational standards.

(5) To cooperate with State and Federal Agencies, the Recreation Advisory Committee, private membership groups, and with commercial recreational interests, in the promotion of recreational opportunities.

(6) To submit a biennial report of its activities to the Governor.

Section 5. *Powers of Commission*.—The commission is hereby authorized:

(1) To make rules and regulations for the proper administration of its duties.

(2) To accept any grant of funds made by the United States, or any agency thereof, for the purpose of carrying out any of its functions.

(3) To accept gifts, bequests, devises and endowments. The funds, if given as an endowment, shall be invested in such securities as designated by the donor, or if there is no designation, in those in which the State Sinking Fund may be invested. All such gifts, bequests, devises and all proceeds from such invested endowments, shall be used for carrying out the purpose for which they are made.

(4) To administer all funds available to the commission.

(5) To act jointly, when advisable, with any other State agency, institution, department, board, or commission in order to carry out the recreation commission's objectives and responsibilities. No activity of the commission, however, shall be allowed to interfere with the work of any other State agency.

(6) To employ, with the approval of the Governor, an executive director, and upon the recommendation of the executive director, such other persons as may be needed to carry out the provisions of this Act. The executive director shall act as secretary to the Commission.

Section 6. *Advisory Committee*.—The Governor shall name a Recreation Advisory Committee consisting of thirty members who shall serve for a term of two years. The Governor shall name one member to act as a chairman of the committee. Vacancies occurring on the committee shall be filled by the Governor for the unexpired term.

Members of the committee shall represent, in so far as feasible, all groups and phases of beneficial recreation in the State.

The committee shall meet once each year with the Recreation Commission at a time and place to be fixed by the Governor. Members of the committee shall serve without compensation.

The committee shall act in an advisory capacity to the Recreation Commission, discuss recreational needs of the State, exchange ideas, and make to the commission recommendations for the advancement of recreational opportunities.

Section 7. There is hereby appropriated for the purposes of this bill the sum of seven thousand five hundred dollars (\$7,500.00) for each year of the biennium one thousand nine hundred and forty-five-forty-seven out of the General Fund of the State.

Section 8. If any provision of this Act, or the application thereof, is held invalid, such invalidity shall not affect other provisions or applications of this Act, and to this end the provisions of this Act are declared to be severable.

Section 9. This Act shall be in full force and effect from and after its ratification.

In the General Assembly, read three times and ratified this 19th day of March, 1945.

The legislature, therefore, declares that in its considered judgment the public good and the general welfare of the citizens of this State require an adequate recreation program and that the creation, establishment and operation of a recreation system is a governmental function and a necessary expense as defined by Article VII, Section seven, of the Constitution of North Carolina.

Minnesota Governor's Advisory Committee on Recreation

In the spring of 1946 a group of recreation professionals joined with the recreation committee of the American Legion to urge the governor of Minnesota to convene a state-wide conference on recreation for the purpose of forming a state advisory committee to study the place and function of the state in recreation. The governor readily agreed to the proposal and a date was determined for the meeting. The group then set about compiling a list of state-wide public, private, social, religious, service, civic and professional organizations interested in recreation. The principle of representation of interests was strictly followed. The list included approximately eighty groups and organizations each of which was invited by the governor to send a representative to the conference. In addition press and radio representatives and several persons, mostly professional recreation

people, who could contribute to the purpose of the meeting were invited. More than one hundred attended the conference. The governor requested that the conferees accept his invitation to become the Governor's Advisory Committee on Recreation. The governor stated that he believed recreation to be a responsibility and a function of state government and that he wished the advisory committee to study the question with a view to developing a plan for Minnesota. Resolutions adopted at the conference follow:

1. The members of this Conference accept the Governor's invitation to become the State Advisory Committee on Recreation, and commend him for the interest which he has demonstrated in recreation on the state level.
2. The Committee shall meet annually and at any other time upon call of the Governor.
3. Local authorities, agencies and citizens should be urged to accept recreation as a responsibility of local government on the basis of the best interests of public welfare, and community planning for recreation should include cooperative action of public, private and voluntary agencies, industrial, commercial, civic, patriotic, religious, social and other groups which have an interest in recreation to the end that the entire resources of the community are utilized.
4. The Committee endorses the platform, "Recreation—An Essential Community Service," prepared by representatives of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation; the Society of Recreation Workers of America;⁴ and the American Association for the Study of Group Work.^{5, 6}

The next step following the formation of the state-wide advisory committee was the selection of an executive committee of twenty members. To facilitate its work the executive group adopted a plan of procedure which included these points:

1. All legislation must be submitted to the executive committee.
2. Any matters concerning recreation, including legislation, may be submitted by any member of the Advisory Committee

⁴ Now called the American Recreation Society.

⁵ Now called the American Association of Group Workers.

⁶ *Report of Governor's Conference on Recreation*. Minneapolis: Department of Physical Education and Athletics, University of Minnesota, May, 1946. (Mimeographed)

and the executive committee itself may initiate any recommendations or legislation.

3. Any recommendations, including legislation, coming from the executive committee must be presented to the Advisory Committee for approval.

4. Only the Advisory Committee will present approved recommendations to the Governor.

Four subcommittees were appointed by the executive committee to function in the areas of proposed legislation, state departments, surveys, and public relations. Their functions were outlined as follows:

Subcommittee on proposed legislation

1. To assemble and study present state, county and municipal legislation in Minnesota pertaining to parks and recreation
2. To assemble and study legislation of the states which have passed laws creating state recreation departments or commissions
3. To assemble and study legislation relating to school, municipal and private agency camping
4. To secure and study opinions of the state attorney general with respect to the state recreation enabling act of 1937 and to other legislation on recreation matters.
5. To receive and study recommendations from state departments, municipal and school representatives and others relative to new legislation or changes in present laws that will be of benefit to recreation
6. To recommend to the executive committee new legislation or changes in present recreation laws

Subcommittee on state departments

1. To make a complete analysis of recreation functions of state departments
2. To explore means of improving cooperative relationships among state departments
3. To consider means of improving services of individual departments
4. To formulate recommendations to the executive committee as to suggested action to be taken to strengthen present recreation services of individual departments

Subcommittee on surveys

1. To collect and study all existing surveys and studies on recreation in Minnesota

2. To inventory the recreation services of state departments
3. To conduct a facility survey if such is necessary in view of material collected under points one and two
4. To develop a survey guide for local communities
5. To make general studies of all existing year-round recreation departments in the state
6. To, after analysis of data assembled, summarize and recommend methods and means of further implementing recreation in the state

Subcommittee on public relations

1. To develop a public consciousness of the values and need for recreation and community services by developing support through:
 - a. Suggesting ways of distributing the recreation platform prepared and adopted by the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation; the American Recreation Society; and the American Association of Group Workers to various officials (public, private, social, civic, etc.) and to the press and radio and to laymen
 - b. Encouraging the interchange of information among communities
2. To recommend media for a public relations program
3. To recommend sources useful in a public relations program
4. To suggest types of information useful in a public relations program
5. To compile a list of meetings, conferences and other gatherings of groups and organizations at which recreation ought to be represented and interpreted

The executive committee and the subcommittees hold regular meetings and report progress to the Advisory Committee between and at annual meetings. The Advisory Committee stresses development of recreation opportunities for people in rural areas, limited settlements and villages and small towns. The Committee urges county and township boards and municipal officials to earmark for recreation at least part of their share of a new cigaret tax and an increased liquor tax enacted by the 1947 legislature. The Committee's program includes:

1. A compilation of state laws and interpretations affecting recreation in Minnesota

2. A pamphlet on the purposes and procedures in recreation surveys
3. An opinion survey with reference to present and needed recreation opportunities in Minnesota. The survey is to include opinions of rural community leaders, agricultural extension agents, youth, adults and public and private recreation agency officials
4. A compilation of what steps have been taken by other states to further state responsibility in recreation and to stimulate local recreation
5. An analysis of selected items regarding full-time recreation departments in Minnesota
6. An inventory of all public recreation facilities in Minnesota
7. A report on the status of recreation in Minnesota with recommendations for a plan of action to improve conditions including legislative action if needs indicate such
8. Publication of the report under the title, *Recreational Resources of the People of Minnesota*
9. Submission of the report to the Governor
10. Distribution of the report to civic organizations
11. Solicitation of support of state-wide groups for the report
12. Realization of the major recommendations of the report

Indiana Advisory Committee on Recreation

In the spring of 1946 a group of laymen and professionals in recreation approached the governor of Indiana with the suggestion that he appoint a state recreation commission. The P.T.A. and the League of Women Voters were prominent among the group. The matter was referred to the State Economic Council which body recommended that the request be handled by the appointment of an advisory committee on recreation to the Economic Council, rather than by creating a new and separate commission. The governor later called a meeting of persons actively interested in recreation and at that time announced the formation of an advisory committee on recreation to be associated with the Council. The recreation consultant of Indiana University was appointed chairman of the committee. The purpose of the committee was stated to be: (1) the study of recreation needs throughout the state; (2) the offering of recommendations to communities regarding recreation programs; and

(3) the study of legislation to implement a program of recreation for youth and adults. Fifty-two persons were appointed to the committee. An executive committee of fifteen was appointed along with subcommittees on research, legislation, field service and training, public relations, and standards.

The 1947 legislature was requested, but failed, to appropriate \$41,000 for use of the executive committee to make a study of recreation in the state as a basis for future proposed state action in recreation. A portion of the funds was intended to finance county recreation demonstration programs as part of the executive committee's research plan. The committee is of the opinion that state aid will be necessary to assist counties to provide recreation services for small towns and rural areas. It secured foundation funds to finance three county recreation demonstration programs for 1949, 1950, and 1951.

The following resolution has been adopted by many groups and organizations of state or local character at the stimulation of the state committee.

Since the need for constructive leisure-time programs becomes more evident as the leisure time of our people increases be it resolved that the endorse these objectives of the Indiana State Advisory Committee on Recreation of the Indiana Economic Council.

1. That the people of each community be provided opportunities to engage in wholesome recreational interests and activities twelve months of the year.

2. That the recreational programs of each community be adequately financed.

3. That the governmental organization provided for recreation be so constituted as to ensure continuity in policies and in the employment of qualified personnel.

Be it further resolved that the render every assistance necessary for the proper activation of these objectives.⁷

A feature of the committee's program is the Annual Governor's Conference on Recreation which draws together well over three

⁷ Eppley, Garrett. *A Guide for Community Recreation in Indiana*. Bloomington: School of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Indiana University, January, 1948, p. 18. (Mimeographed)

hundred lay and professional persons yearly for a full day's program.

Wisconsin Recreation Council

The Wisconsin Recreation Council was formed at a meeting called by the President of the University of Wisconsin in 1944 at the request of a group of laymen and members of the Wisconsin Recreation Association, a professional body. Seventy groups, organizations and agencies were represented. The Council meets regularly and it has been an active agent in promoting the establishment of a recreation leadership training curriculum at LaCrosse State Teachers College and at the University of Wisconsin. It has also studied the question of the desirability of a state recreation bureau and in January, 1947, recommended to the President of the University that a recreation field consultant be added to the faculty. This appointment was made in September, 1947.

The State of Washington

In 1946 a Recreational and Cultural Resources Survey was conducted in the State of Washington under sponsorship of the office of secretary of state.⁸ One of the most significant recommendations of the survey related to the formation of a state recreation commission composed of eleven members, including five state department heads and six laymen, with an advisory committee of from twenty to forty people. A full-time recreation director and a staff responsible to the proposed commission were also recommended. The most important function of the commission was stated to be the establishment of consultant services to communities and non-profit groups to aid them in setting up recreation systems, developing programs and planning facilities. Other recommended functions were:

1. Allocation of matching funds to communities for the building of recreation facilities and the operation of programs,

⁸ *Recreation and Cultural Resources Survey, State of Washington*. Olympia: Office of the Secretary of State, 1946.

- provided communities meet certain minimum standards to be set up by the commission
2. Coordination of existing recreation functions of state departments
 3. Promotion of leadership training for both professional and volunteer personnel
 4. Maintenance of an information center for literature and publications and exchanges of ideas
 5. Conduct of community research services in recreation
 6. Coordination of youth camping activities
 7. Encouragement of the natural folk expression of the people
 8. Survey of migratory and farm labor and industrial and other special problems, and assistance to non-profit groups and organizations concerned with providing recreation for underprivileged persons

In 1945 the Washington State legislature authorized state aid to recreation programs administered by school districts. Consultant service to communities is also available. A legislative act provides for a division of recreation in the state department of education and for the organization of community recreation advisory committees.

California's State Recreation Commission

The California Youth Committee sponsored a meeting of representatives of various public and private recreation agencies in October, 1946, to consider the future of recreation in California with particular reference to the responsibilities of the state government in recreation. From this meeting came a committee for the study of recreation in California. One of its first acts was to engage a research worker, from funds contributed by the Rosenberg Foundation of San Francisco, to study the state's responsibilities in recreation. The study explored:

1. California's recreation resources
2. The status of recreation in the state
3. The need for administrative coordination and integration of recreation functions at the state level

4. The need for a channel of inter-governmental communication and cooperation
5. Means whereby the state government can best be organized to integrate and expand recreation services

The major recommendation of the committee's study related to "the establishment of a State Recreation Commission independent of other state departments and directly responsible to the Governor."⁹ In June, 1947, the California legislature passed a bill creating a state recreation commission with an appropriation of \$79,000 for the first fiscal year. The following are the main characteristics of the bill:

Chapter 1. Recreation Commission

The commission consists of seven members appointed by the Governor, one of whom designated by the Governor shall serve as Chairman, for terms of four years, and until the qualification of their successors, except as to the first appointees.

The Governor shall first appoint one member whose term shall expire on January 15, 1948, and two members whose terms shall expire on each of the following dates: January 15, 1949, 1950, and 1951 respectively. Vacancies for causes other than expiration of terms of office shall be filled for the remainder of the unexpired term.

The members of the commission shall serve without compensation, but shall be entitled to their actual necessary expenses incurred in the performance of their duties.

The commission shall cause to be studied and shall consider the whole problem of recreation of the people of the State of California as it affects and may affect the welfare of the people and especially the children and youth.

The commission shall formulate, in cooperation with other state agencies, interested organizations and citizens, a comprehensive recreational policy for the State of California.

The commission shall, with the written approval of the Governor, establish policies for the guidance of the Director of Recreation in the performance and exercise of his powers and duties as set forth in this Act.

⁹ *Recreation in California*. San Francisco: Committee for the Study of Recreation in California. March, 1947, p. 4.

The Governor, in consultation with the commission, shall appoint a Director of Recreation who is technically trained with adequate administrative experience in the field of public recreation, and who shall receive a salary to be determined by the Recreation Commission with the approval of the Department of Finance. The Director of Recreation shall serve at the pleasure of the Governor.

The commission shall aid and encourage, but not conduct, public recreation activities.

The commission shall report annually to the Governor on the needs of the State and the local subdivisions thereof for recreational facilities, programs, and activities.

The Governor may designate the Recreation Commission and the Director of Recreation as the authorized agent to receive donations and disburse subventions in order to carry out the purposes of this Act.

Chapter 2. Director of Recreation

In accordance with the policies established by the commission with the written approval of the Governor, the Director of Recreation shall execute the powers and duties set forth in Chapter 1, and shall:

(a) Appoint and supervise and direct all officers, agents, and employees necessary to carry out the provisions of this Act.

(b) Investigate and report to the commission upon the facilities and services which are needed or which exist in the public recreational areas within the State and by consultation with the authorities in charge, assist in the coordination and development of recreational programs, provided that surveys of the recreational facilities and programs of local agencies shall be made only upon their request.

(c) Advise and cooperate with and encourage community recreation agencies interested in the use of or the development of recreational facilities and programs for public benefit.

(d) Advise the administrative officers of all State agencies, authorized by law to perform recreational services, of regular meetings of the commission and of such special meetings as may consider matters relating to their specific responsibilities,

and invite such officers to attend and participate in deliberations of the commission without authority to vote.

The Director of Recreation may encourage and render assistance in the promotion of training programs for volunteer and professional recreation leaders in cooperation with other agencies, organizations and institutions, and may encourage the establishment of standards for recreation personnel.

The Director of Recreation may assist every department, commission, board, agency, and officer of the State in rendering recreational services in conformity with their respective authorized powers and duties and encourage and assist the coordination of federal, state and local recreational activities.

The Director of Recreation shall perform such other duties as may be prescribed by law, and such other administrative and executive duties as have been by other provisions of law imposed upon the Recreation Commission.

The Committee for the Study of Recreation in California also received funds to conduct a recreation leadership training project for one year on a state-wide basis. A comprehensive program was conducted the highlights of which were:

1. A demonstration field training project in fourteen selected centers in the state
2. Consultation service to recreation agencies, representatives and workers and to others on matters related to leadership training
3. Investigation and research in relation to the status of recreation leadership, the need for clearly stated standards of training, selection, compensation and employment of recreation workers
4. The formulation of plans for the continued training of professional and volunteer recreation leaders
5. Preparation of materials on leadership training content and methods to be available to other states and communities

In October, 1946, the California Department of Public Instruction established a new position of consultant in community recreation in its division of physical and health education and

recreation. The consultant serves local education departments and, upon request, other local agencies. The California Youth Authority as part of its field service program also assists communities with their recreation problems.

In February, 1948, at the request of the California Recreation Commission, the state personnel board established the civil service classification, Recreation Specialist.¹⁰ The duties of this position include advising and cooperating with the political subdivisions of the state and with private agencies in the development and coordination of recreation services. Education qualifications are equivalent to graduation from college and one year of graduate work in recreation or related fields, with additional qualifying experience allowed as a substitute for not more than three years of the required education on a year-for-year basis. Experience qualifications are four years of full-time paid responsible administrative or consultative experience in community recreation. The Commission engaged four consultants, one woman and three men, under this plan in the spring of 1948.

Other Plans

Stimulated by the experience of the state defense recreation committee and by the request of interested groups, the Governor of Vermont in January, 1944, appointed a state director of recreation to function under the State Council of Safety, a body dating back to colonial days. In 1947 a separate state recreation board was created by legislative action. The major mission of the director is to expedite the development of recreation throughout the state by means of field service to communities. Vermont has a population of approximately 360,000 and has 246 cities and towns, the largest having a population of eight thousand. The initial budget granted for the recreation service was \$12,000. Most of the director's time is spent in field service, a major objective of which is to establish community recreation councils to study recreation problems with a view to creating new opportunities and improving existing ones. Assistance is also given in planning of facilities, training of leaders, furnishing literature and conducting recreation conferences.

¹⁰ *Recreation News and Previews*. Berkeley: California Recreation Executives Association, February, 1948.

New Hampshire organized a recreation division as a part of the state department of forestry. Its purpose is to work toward the development of local recreation. Kentucky in September, 1946, appointed a state director to head a division of recreation established as a part of the department of conservation. It was abolished in 1948. The director worked with a committee of fourteen laymen and professional recreation people appointed by the governor. Stimulation of provision for recreation in local communities was the major purpose of the division. A budget of \$36,000 per biennium was the initial financial provision set up for the work. Missouri in 1946 activated a recreation department in the State Division of Resources and Development, created in 1943.

The Wisconsin State Federation of Labor (A.F.L.) by convention action in 1939 created a post of state recreation director. The position was established as a result of recognition of the need for expanded recreation opportunities for federation members and their families and for labor to be represented in the many recreation movements taking place throughout the state. The director acts as a consultant to local labor groups and assists in the development of group leadership. A basic policy is to encourage local unions to utilize the facilities and leadership of community recreation programs.

Nebraska in October, 1947, took initial steps toward exploration of the need for a study of recreation in the state and for an inquiry into the proper place of the state government in recreation. A small nuclear group of professional and lay people from agencies and groups active in recreation met at the suggestion of a professional recreation staff member of one of the state's universities. After a day long discussion of recreation opportunities and needs in Nebraska and of progress made by other states in the matter of state level responsibilities in recreation, the exploratory group adopted a procedure which included the following points:

1. A committee of three to five persons from among those present should be selected to enlist the governor's interest in calling a state-wide meeting of representatives of agencies and groups interested in recreation. In selecting those to be invited

to attend, the principles of inclusiveness and representation of interests should be strictly adhered to.

2. At the state-wide meeting those attending should organize into a "Committee for the Study of Recreation in Nebraska." The committee should define its objectives and name an executive committee and subcommittees to pursue the objectives.
3. The study committee should devote its major attention to a consideration of the need for state assistance to local communities in their recreation problems.

In February, 1948, Iowa took some definite steps toward the formation of a state recreation program. The Cultural Arts and Recreation Division of the Iowa Community Developmental Workshop supplied the original stimulus. Emphasis is directed toward studying present recreation opportunities and needs in Iowa and investigating what other states have done on the state level.

Inter-Agency Committees

As of May, 1948, inter-agency recreation committees on the state level existed in eight states, i.e., Arkansas, Florida, Illinois, Louisiana, Michigan, Missouri, Tennessee and Texas. The committees are made up of representatives of various state departments or divisions having recreation responsibilities of a specific nature. Modeled somewhat after the Federal Inter-Agency Committee on Recreation, their purpose is to better coordinate present services of state agencies in recreation. Coordination of this type is commendable and sorely needed. It does not, however, substitute for state services to local communities so well represented by the state recreation commission plans in California, North Carolina and Vermont.

Multi-State Conferences

The trend toward state-wide recreation committees began during World War II and was related to recreation services carried on or advocated by state defense councils. In May, 1944, a conference held in Washington, D. C., was attended by representatives of eastern state recreation committees. Some thirty laymen

and professionals from sixteen states were present. Representatives of the Recreation Division of the Federal Security Agency were also present. The conference agenda included consideration of: (1) the most effective type of state recreation organization; (2) the functions and resources of a state recreation committee and effective means of carrying out the functions; and (3) the best methods to employ in order to conserve gains in recreation made by state and federal agencies during the war. A move in the direction of exchanges of experiences among state level recreation personnel in the midwest which may develop into a permanent conference, was represented by a meeting in Chicago in September, 1946, attended by twelve people who represented state professional recreation societies, state recreation commissions and advisory councils and state universities in six states.¹¹ Three major plans developed from the meeting: a decision to meet annually in conjunction with the Midwest Recreation Conference and at other times to be agreed upon; a determination to continue study of state movements in recreation with a view to adopting some desirable principles of organization and operation of state recreation functions; and a decision to formulate a procedure in recreation research.

State Responsibility

There are two major possibilities in placing state responsibility for recreation: in an agency or department which already exists; in a separate commission or department specifically created for this purpose and having no other responsibilities. The latter plan more likely will secure for recreation the recognition and consideration its importance deserves. It provides a means of focusing effort and planning without danger of subordination to some other primary function or responsibility. This plan is illustrated by the California Recreation Commission, the North Carolina Recreation Commission and the Vermont Recreation Board. The New Hampshire and Missouri plans are examples of placement of responsibility within an agency or department. If a recreation

¹¹ Minutes of Meeting of Midwest Area State Recreation Representatives. Minneapolis: Department of Physical Education and Athletics, Recreation Division, University of Minnesota, October, 1946. (Mimeographed)

authority is desired under either of the plans it will have more permanency and status if created by an act of the state legislature rather than through executive order of the governor.

Another means of developing and coordinating state responsibilities in recreation is the trend toward state universities assuming some responsibility for recreation consultant services to communities. The Universities of Connecticut, Indiana, Illinois, Minnesota and Wisconsin are examples. This plan has certain advantages including:

1. The recognized insistence of universities upon qualifications of faculty members
2. University faculty members enjoy tenure and are not subject to political appointive powers
3. Field consultant services can be correlated with professional training in recreation leadership and/or with university extension services

Selection of the university department to which to attach the recreation consultant service is not as important as an assurance that the consultant is fully qualified professionally and that he is given wide freedom of action. Where a professional recreation training program exists, the consultant should be attached to that unit. Most state universities today in addition to their usual functions of teaching and research recognize a responsibility to serve the communities which support them. In their laboratories and through other research media institutions of higher learning have by means of scientific discoveries helped to create the factors which condition human needs. In recreation the universities can contribute much by training professional recreation personnel, by training all students and prospective teachers in leisure attitudes and skills, by providing recreation opportunities on and off the campus and by serving communities through recreation consultants. Those who advocate the state university as the place for recreation consultant service believe that no state recreation managing authority is necessary, provided the consultant service is supplemented by an inter-agency coordinating committee of state department representatives charged with recreation functions and by a state-wide recreation advisory committee composed

of laymen and professionals. In Indiana the university recreation consultant is also the chairman of the state recreation advisory committee, a means of coordinating state services.

In the fall of 1947 the Department of Recreation of the School of Health, Physical Education and Recreation of Indiana University conducted a questionnaire study of the opinions of ninety-seven recreation executives throughout the country regarding placement of state responsibility for recreation. Sixty-nine replied. A summarization of their opinions follows:

1. 88 percent felt that a state university qualified to offer a graduate degree in recreation should provide field consultant services to local communities; and 86 percent felt it should do the same for state agencies.
2. 96 percent felt that a state university could offer a more effective training program for recreation majors if it provided a field consultant service; and 96 percent felt such a service would result in a more effective placement service for the university's recreation graduates.
3. 78 percent favored creation by law of a state recreation department in their state.
4. The state university ranked first as the agency in the opinion of the recreation executives which would receive the greatest amount of cooperation from local communities in leadership training institutes, whereas the separate state recreation department ranked first as the agency which would get the greatest cooperation in field service. In the matters of recreation surveys and distribution of literature and film service the two ranked about even.
5. Both the state department of education and the state park department ranked far behind the university and the state recreation department in relation to the above. Education, however, was ranked ahead of parks.

State Recreation Authority

Official state recreation committees function in more than a score of states, and in at least fifteen others such groups are in the making. Some of these groups are part of a state managing authority for recreation which has over-all responsibility for the coordination of state department services and the stimulation of

local recreation. Others are working toward a plan of state level administration that is best suited to their respective states. With full recognition for the characteristics, desires and needs of the individual states these functions can well be part of any plan that is decided upon:

1. To advise and assist local communities in the organization and operation of recreation programs. This implies the establishment of consultant service to the communities of the state. Unless such a service is available as a basic duty of the state authority it is difficult to see how it can function effectively.
2. To act as a coordinating influence for the various state departments such as conservation, education, and social welfare which have certain recreation functions as a primary, secondary or incidental duty. In any state several departments and divisions thereof, and rightly and necessarily so, have a claim and a responsibility in recreation.

The coordinative aspect of such services is, however, a further responsibility. Effectiveness is an obligation that accompanies freedom to function. Any over-all state recreation authority that may be set up must devise means whereby coordination of state agencies' services is assured while at the same time the rights of the individual agency are honored. It is not the purpose of the central authority to duplicate the prescribed duties of individual bodies, but to strengthen them. One method of implementing coordination is to have the heads of departments and divisions performing recreation services of a specialized nature act as an advisory committee to the central recreation agency. No activity of the latter should be allowed to impede or conflict with the work of any other state level agency.

3. To inventory and study recreation needs of the state
4. To act as a medium for the gathering, exchange and dissemination of information and plans relative to recreation
5. To study the need for new recreation legislation or changes in present laws affecting recreation on state and local levels
6. To promote recreation conferences and institutes for laymen and professionals

7. To stimulate and assist in the organization of community recreation advisory councils
8. To assist in recruiting, training and placing recreation workers
9. To aid in determining and promoting recreation standards
10. To stimulate the development of recreation in rural areas

State Aid

New York, Pennsylvania and Washington provide some financial reimbursement to local communities for children's recreation programs and/or other recreation projects. State aid for local recreation is also being actively advocated in California. The desirability and the feasibility of state aid to counties and cities for recreation programs of a community-wide nature are now being given much thought as an accompanying development to the trend in increased assumption of state level responsibilities in recreation. As previously stated, Indiana is studying the need for financial aid to counties to enable them to establish and conduct recreation opportunities in small towns and rural areas. In the state of Washington it has been recommended that a small percent of sales tax receipts be returned to counties and cities for recreation purposes.¹² There is little doubt that the desirable, but not always practicable, plan is to support local recreation from local resources. The question of state aid for recreation is related to the whole structure of state and local tax powers and proportionate amounts of tax funds accruing to the state and to the local treasuries. These matters are now being examined and revised in almost all states.

Need for state aid for recreation would appear to be most acute where municipalities and unincorporated areas cannot support public recreation opportunities through their own resources and where even a county-wide system is not financially possible. A start in this direction would be for the state to provide sufficient funds for a county director of recreation. A second step would be to determine the feasibility of providing state aid up to perhaps one-half of funds spent for recreation by the county. The concept of state aid funds for local education should also

¹² *Recreational and Cultural Resources Survey, State of Washington*, p. 88.

be enlarged to include partial reimbursement for money spent by boards of education on recreation programs. The need for middle size and large cities to receive state aid for recreation also needs careful analysis. A further consideration is related to federal funds to assist states, and political subdivisions through the states, in the operation of recreation programs. These possibilities point to the need for the establishment of a central recreation agency on the state level and a broad recreation advisory service on the national level.

Professional Groups

State professional associations of recreation workers exist in over twenty states. In the main their members are employed in public recreation agencies. They exert a direct influence on both state and local community organization for recreation. On the state level professional groups participate in movements designed to coordinate state organizations in recreation and to strengthen recreation as a function of state government. In addition they also sponsor and conduct state-wide studies and surveys on matters affecting recreation theory and practice. Their annual conferences encourage participation by recreation board members and community council members.

On the local level state professional recreation associations assist communities through consultant services, leadership training institutes for volunteers and full and part-time leaders, and recreation conferences. Among the state associations which regularly distribute newsletters and other materials are California, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, North Carolina, Pennsylvania and Wisconsin. Several of the associations employ executive secretaries on a part-time basis. Most of them have standing committees on legislation which exert an important influence upon state recreation legislation particularly.

State welfare conferences or associations of social workers exist in all but one or two states. About twenty of them have full or part-time paid executive secretaries. Private agency recreation workers usually belong to these groups rather than to the state recreation association. Most of the state welfare associations

have a section on group work and recreation which takes an active part in state level efforts to further recreation.

State associations for health, physical education and recreation also are a major influence in stimulating the development of recreation. Through conferences, publications and memberships on state recreation committees associations of this type participate in state level movements in recreation.

State Youth Commissions

The current trend to create state youth authorities is related to the field of community organization for recreation. More than a third of the states have youth committees and others are making plans for establishing such bodies. They have developed mainly as a result of increased juvenile delinquency and are concerned with its correction and prevention. State youth commissions or authorities have been created in a few states by legislative action. Although vocational guidance, psychiatric treatment and extended educational opportunities are important phases of the youth commission plan, recreation has emerged as a basic part of the structure. It is related particularly to the preventive aspects of the program.

In 1941 California established a Youth Authority which includes among its functions a recreation consultant service to communities. Attention of citizen groups and professional societies has been brought to bear on the importance of recreation in the community as a basis for a preventive program in juvenile delinquency. Legislation establishing the Youth Authority provides that:

The Authority may establish or assist in the establishment of any public council or committee, and may assist and cooperate with any existing agency, having as its object the prevention or decrease of delinquency among the youths; and the Authority may cooperate with or participate in the work of any such councils, or any existing councils, including the improvement of recreational, health and other conditions in the community affecting youths.¹³

¹³ *Welfare Institutions Code, 1943*. Sacramento: State Supervisor of Documents, p. 90.

The activities of the Youth Authority in California are very closely related to the community council movement, and the majority of councils have most of their interests in areas of community life which affect youth. In March, 1946, the Authority inaugurated a quarterly publication entitled *Community Organization for Youth Services*. This magazine contains in general the type of material presented in the publication, *Community Coordination*, published for several years by Coordinating Councils, Incorporated, an organization which is now inactive.

In December, 1945, the Governor of California appointed the California Youth Committee. Nineteen representatives of public and private agencies interested in youth comprise the membership. The Committee works with the Youth Authority and other state agencies. Recreation and community organization are two of the basic interests of the Committee.

The Michigan Youth Guidance Commission was established in 1945 following a period of two years' work by the Governor's Youth Advisory Committee. It was given an initial appropriation of \$37,000. It acted as a planning, consulting and advising agency. The Commission stimulated the organization of county and city youth councils. Coordination at the state level was provided by an advisory council representing over seventy organizations, groups and agencies. The Commission stressed the importance of recreation in the community for *all*. It provided a field consultant service to aid committees with their problems in recreation. Almost three-fourths of requests for aid received by the Commission from communities were related to recreation. The Michigan legislature failed to appropriate funds for the Commission after July 1, 1947.

The Minnesota legislature created a State Youth Conservation Commission in the spring of 1947 with an appropriation for the first biennium of \$125,000. Two major divisions, correction and community service, comprise its functional organization. The community service phase is headed by a professional in recreation and seeks to establish new recreation opportunities and expand existing ones for all in every community of the state. Included in the recreation plan is the creation of demonstration county recreation systems designed to stimulate greater opportunities for people in rural areas and small communities. Wisconsin also

established a youth division in 1947 as a part of its state welfare department. It includes a full-time community recreation consultant.

The Indiana legislature in 1945 passed an act authorizing a one mill property tax in cities of the fourth and fifth classes and in unincorporated towns and school townships to establish recreation centers for youth. The bill also provided for special boards to administer the centers, but no provision was made for co-ordination with the community recreation program. Because of the administrative confusion and duplication of services that would arise in communities which put provisions of the act into effect, a bill was passed in the 1947 legislature which abolished this legislation.

A Youth Guidance Commission was established in Kentucky by the General Assembly in 1944. The Commission early in its work found recreation to be a major concern of young people. The Commission recommended to the governor in 1945 that because of a clear need for a state-wide recreation program, the state recreation committee prepare a plan to assist communities to establish and operate recreation programs for all including specialized activities such as youth centers.

New York established a State Youth Commission in 1945 as a temporary commission until July 1, 1950. Its elemental purpose is to help communities to help themselves in the solution to problems involving youth. It is authorized to give state aid to cities and counties for youth bureaus and to counties, cities, villages and towns for recreation or education projects.¹⁴ The local community is responsible for initiating the bureaus and projects, but the Commission will consult and advise with local representatives regarding the planning and initiating of such services. The Commission defines a recreation project as a structure, property, interest or activity owned, maintained, or operated by or under the direction of a municipality and devoted in whole or in part to the provision of leisure-time activities for youth.

Under the law state aid can be granted only to a municipality, but it may designate a public or a private agency to discharge responsibilities in connection with a project. The aid may be used

¹⁴ *Questions and Answers Concerning the Program of the New York State Youth Commission*. Albany: New York State Youth Commission, April 1, 1947.

for administrative expenses, personal services, purchase of equipment and materials and rental of buildings. State aid is authorized for recreation projects in the amount of one-half the entire expenditure for a project. The total state aid, however, must not exceed \$250 per annum for each one thousand children, a child or youth being any resident of the state under twenty-one years of age. Municipalities with less than four thousand children can receive \$1,000 yearly. During 1947 approximately \$750,000 was made available by the Commission to assist one hundred local recreation departments to promote 470 projects.

A note of caution is in order with reference to the relationships of recreation to youth commissions. Recreation is not essentially a service for youth, although it is a service still in its youth. There is no doubt that any plan to improve community conditions must include adequate opportunities for recreation for young people. Recreation programs for youth, however, will be most successful if offered as a part of a comprehensive system of community recreation rather than as a specialized service with little or no reference to the total pattern of recreation in the community. Public programs for youth recreation should be part of the local public recreation authority's offerings and should be coordinated with the total program. The Indiana 1945 youth center law, just cited, which it was found desirable to repeal is a case in point. Youth authorities which are concerned with recreation programs must also differentiate between the legal aspects of youth correction and the broader field of youth services. In this connection it is interesting to note that the division of delinquency prevention of the Illinois Department of Welfare is now known as the division of community services. It has a full-time community recreation consultant. Delinquent youth are but from two to four percent of all youth. It is essential that the need for recreation as a basic community service for all the people be the guiding consideration behind any intelligent planning for recreation.

Summary

Data which follow, by no means complete, provide a digest of recreation services of state agencies to local communities.

States which provide full-time consultant service to communities include California, Georgia, Indiana, Minnesota, New York, North Carolina, Tennessee, Vermont and Wisconsin. Recreation specialists either full or part-time are available through state agricultural extension divisions in Arkansas, Colorado, Connecticut, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio State, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin and Wyoming.

Practically all states provide part-time recreation consultant services through their departments of education. California maintains a full-time recreation consultant in its state department of education.

Universities having recreation consultants apart from agricultural extension divisions include Alabama, Colorado, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio State, Purdue, Virginia and Wisconsin. Pennsylvania State College also has such a staff member.

Other services include those provided by the California Youth Authority, Georgia Citizens' Council, New York State Youth Commission, Minnesota Youth Conservation Commission, New York State Department of Commerce, Massachusetts Department of Conservation, Missouri Division of Resources and Development and the youth division of the Illinois and Wisconsin Welfare Departments.

Special state recreation departments or commissions in North Carolina, Vermont, California and New Hampshire provide full-time recreation consultant service to local communities.

State planning boards in a few states furnish assistance to communities in the planning of recreation areas and facilities. Missouri, Pennsylvania and Wisconsin are examples.

NATIONAL LEVEL COORDINATION

Some thirty agencies, departments and divisions of our national government have been identified with certain recreation functions. Among those whose contributions to recreation are well known

are the National Park Service and the Fish and Wildlife Service of the Department of Interior; the Office of Education and the Children's Bureau of the Federal Security Agency; and the Extension Service and the Forest Service of the Department of Agriculture.¹⁵ Temporary federal agencies such as the Recreation Division of the W.P.A. and the Recreation Division of the Office of Community War Services of the Federal Security Agency also discharged notable functions in recreation. The federal government, however, like most state governments, does not include a central recreation service to assist in the development of community recreation.

Proposed Federal Recreation Service

On April 15, 1946, Senator Thomas of Utah introduced a bill in Congress to authorize a federal recreation service under the Federal Security Agency. The bill authorized the F.S.A. Administrator to provide recreation service to states, localities and non-governmental groups upon request. It provided for a national advisory board to be appointed by the Administrator from leaders of national standing in the fields of public or private recreation or in related fields. It provided for federal government assistance by means of technical and professional advisory services and the collection, publication, and distribution of specialized information, statistics and reports. It further provided that nothing contained in the bill should be construed as limiting or impairing the authority or responsibility of any department or agency of the government under any other act. For the first twelve months an appropriation of \$450,000 was included.

Reasons advanced by proponents of the measure as to why a federal recreation service is necessary included:

1. The widespread importance of recreation in American life
2. The inability of partial recreation services of several federal agencies to meet the needs of states and communities
3. The need for guidance by states and localities endeavoring to develop and improve recreation services

¹⁵ For a comprehensive review of federal agencies in recreation see *Recreation*, February, 1947, whole issue.

4. The need for action by the federal government in a field so important to national life
5. The need for research, statistics and specialized information by national, state and local agencies

Those who opposed the bill gave the following as their principal objections:

1. That present services of federal agencies and the National Recreation Association are adequate
2. That not sufficient time was given to study the bill

The Senate Committee on Labor and Education to which the bill had been referred conducted hearings and on July 3, 1946, reported favorably and recommended that the bill pass. It was not brought up for vote. A study of the testimony given during the hearings will be of great benefit to those interested in an account of the need for and the philosophy of recreation.¹⁶

The bill was reintroduced in 1947 as Senate Bill 1229, as previously indicated. Present indications are that an accelerated growth of state recreation commissions, boards or departments must precede realization of a centralized federal recreation service. The American Recreation Society is a leading proponent of a federal recreation service and is the sponsor of H.R. 5723 a companion bill to S. 1229.

The National Park Service

The National Park Service was created by Congress in 1916. Its three major functions include administration of its own areas, which total more than twenty-two million acres in 169 national parks of eleven different types; cooperation with state agencies, particularly state park departments; and cooperation with the Bureau of Reclamation of the Department of Interior and the Corps of Engineers of the War Department. The seventy-fourth Con-

¹⁶ See *Hearings Before a Subcommittee of the Committee on Education and Labor, United States Senate on S. 2070.. Seventy-ninth Congress, Second Session, Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1946.*

gress authorized the National Park Service to establish extension services to states, civil divisions and quasi-public agencies in the planning and establishment of public recreation systems and the conducting of recreation and related studies. A series of state studies as part of the Recreation Study Act is being participated in by forty-six states. It is not expected that National Park Service acreage holdings will increase in the future in any appreciable degree. Recreation use of the areas and personnel to man them, however, will expand greatly. The most recent acquisition plans involve development of national beaches on the Atlantic, Pacific and Gulf coasts and on the shores of the Great Lakes. Nature services of the National Parks will also expand. National parks of four major types—scenic, historical, scientific, and parkways—are to be found in all parts of the United States and in Alaska and Hawaii. In the United States most of them are west of the Mississippi river. Nine recreation demonstration areas are also operated by the Service while their final status is being determined.

The Children's Bureau

The Children's Bureau as early as 1918 employed a recreation specialist particularly for research and study. One of the first studies undertaken concerned standards of dance halls. Later activities related to rural recreation and training of recreation leaders for group programs in rural and semi-rural localities until 1935 when this type of work was taken over by the Department of Agriculture. Since then the Bureau's work has been confined to publications and investigations of the value of recreation in preventing juvenile delinquency. Studies of institutional treatment of delinquents have stressed the values of recreation activities in the treatment program. Community demonstrations in Chicago and St. Paul emphasized the need for proper provision in the community for recreation as a factor in preventing juvenile delinquency and as an element in the treatment of delinquents.¹⁷ The Bureau's recreation specialists provide limited

¹⁷ *Children in the Community*. Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Children's Bureau, Government Printing Office, 1946.

consultation on the state level but no direct service is furnished to communities.

The Office of Education

The Office of Education is interested in recreation as a complement to education. It has produced many publications related to recreation and leisure time. One of the most recent is *The Schools and Recreation Services*. The Office engaged its first recreation worker in 1925 for the primary purpose of making recreation surveys. Today research and development of standards are two of the main functions of the Office in recreation. The Future Farmers of America, sponsored by the Office, is an educational and leisure-time program for farm boys in public schools. The Office appointed a recreation specialist in February, 1948 with the title of "specialist on organization for school-community recreation." His work is chiefly with state education authorities. Reorganization plans of the Office, adopted in 1944, include provision eventually for a section on school-community recreation directed by a chief and staffed with twelve professional people in the following positions: assistant chief; specialist in recreation leadership training; specialist in school-community recreation organization, with assistants for adult recreation, youth recreation and school camps and camping; four research assistants; and two field service consultants.

The Department of Agriculture

The Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture administers federal aid to the states for agricultural extension work and cooperates with them in that work. The Service employs a rural recreation specialist to work with state extension divisions and to prepare publications on recreation. The Service assists states to develop state-wide and local recreation projects. Home demonstration programs and 4-H Club activities are rich in recreation experiences. About eighteen states have full-time rural recreation specialists on their agricultural college staffs who work with county extension agents. The 4-H Club program which now reaches almost two million young people will be expanded. In

1946 there were 175,000 local 4-H Club leaders, and seventeen hundred 4-H Club camps were attended by 150,000 rural youth. Leadership training programs for volunteers in rural recreation are a major part of the 4-H program. Recreation opportunities of a varied nature are sponsored by the Service. Family recreation, games and sports, dramatics, arts and crafts, camping, folk games and dancing, choral groups and many other forms of recreation are encouraged. A very large part of the recreation program is directed by volunteers who are assisted in organization work and leadership training by the field staff of the Service.

The Forest Service

The Forest Service includes 180,000,000 acres of forests in the United States, Alaska and Hawaii. It recently organized a division of recreation to develop a use program for forests. It encourages forest type recreation as a distinct variety and stresses activities that flourish in a forest atmosphere. Permits are available for agency camps, private hotels, and individual summer homes or mountain cabins. The Service also subsidizes lakelets and ponds, some on private property, and stocks them with fish. Educational materials are prepared by the Service and also informational materials relating to recreation use of forest areas. The Service in general is not directed to cooperate with states or local agencies and must devote its full time to national forests. Cooperation, however, is maintained with state forestry departments in recreation planning and technical services. Hunting, fishing, boating, swimming, hiking, and camping and nature activities are types of leisure pursuits particularly suited to forests. The Service has plans for extending opportunities for recreation of this type.

The Fish and Wildlife Service

The Fish and Wildlife Service does not maintain recreation programs. It does make available facilities for self-directed recreation interests such as fishing, hunting, boating, hiking and camping. The Service maintains refuges for wildlife and coordinates all wildlife restoration programs carried on under the

Federal Aid to Wildlife Restoration Act passed by Congress in 1937. The Act provides federal funds to states that have legal conservation programs. The Service carries on wildlife research, maintains hatcheries, regulates some types of commercial fishing, distributes bulletins and other materials and works with any group interested in conservation. Much of its work is related to the activities of state and county wildlife agencies and private agricultural groups.

Many other federal agencies have recreation functions of an incidental nature. Some are Resettlement Administration, Tennessee Valley Authority, Office of Indian Affairs, Public Health Service, War Department and National Housing Agency.

Federal Inter-Agency Committee

In 1946 six federal agencies having certain functions in recreation joined to form the Federal Inter-Agency Committee on Recreation. The Committee was originally made up of representatives of the Extension Service and Forest Service of the Department of Agriculture; the National Park Service and the Fish and Wildlife Service of the Department of Interior; the Office of Education of the Federal Security Agency; and the Veterans Administration. Shortly after the committee was formed the Veterans' Administration withdrew and was replaced by the Children's Bureau of the Federal Security Agency. The Army Corps of Engineers is also a member of the group. The Committee came into being as a result of voluntary action on the part of the agencies each of which realized a need for cooperation and coordination among federal bodies in recreation. Major objectives are to make maximum use of federal recreation areas, to provide the kinds of recreation most needed by the people, and to eliminate needless duplication of services and facilities. To implement its purpose the Committee appointed a full-time secretary.

An earlier effort related to federal recreation agency coordination was that represented by the Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities. In September, 1937, this committee issued a report but confined its material to a description of recreation activities of federal agencies.

The National Recreation Association

The leading national privately supported organization affecting community organization for recreation is the National Recreation Association. This body was formed in 1906 when a group of interested persons met with President Theodore Roosevelt at the White House. From the outset it has been sustained by private contributions, earnings from publications and charges for certain services of its staff members. The Association describes itself as a national, non-profit, recreation service agency. Its budget for expenditures in 1946 was \$363,866.97. Its support comes from corporations and from fifteen thousand persons in over nine hundred communities. Work of the Association is carried on principally through publications, correspondence and consultation assistance to federal bureaus and field service to state agencies and local communities. It conducts and publishes an annual analysis of administration, finance, leadership, facilities and program of local communities throughout the nation that support recreation services. In 1946 the Association gave field assistance to state bureaus in forty-three states. Four representatives give field service to various state agencies providing recreation as part of their total program. Many of these agencies are concerned with aiding recreation services in rural areas. The Association's field work, however, has been centered on service to local communities, and through this means it has a significant influence in community organization for recreation. Almost eight hundred cities were given service in 1946 through the visits of field representatives. Fifteen district field workers are assigned to a definite group of cities. Their purpose is to assist communities to set up and maintain year-round programs of public recreation. The field representatives have also conducted recreation surveys in many localities to better coordination and operation of community recreation.

The Association has for years given valuable assistance to numerous federal agencies in recreation. The Association was instrumental in securing the establishment of the Federal Inter-Agency Committee on Recreation. It believes that the Committee can do part of the work that the proponents of a separate and distinct federal recreation service claim is needed. Analysis

indicates, however, that each of the agencies included in the Committee has a specific function to perform in a specialized area of recreation. The Committee is a technique for coordinating and relating these services to unified procedures, but the sum of their functions does not necessarily constitute a whole. The existing functions are not related directly to provision for community recreation in states and local communities. Assistance of a research, informational, consultation and stimulation nature to states and through states to communities can best be given by a federal service created for this specific purpose.

Community Surveys Associates

Community Surveys Associates of New York City was formed in 1945 by a group of private and public group work and recreation professionals who for many years had conducted social welfare and recreation surveys throughout the country under the auspices of national groups for local organizations. All of the studies conducted by this body have implications for community organization for recreation and contain recommendations for more effective coordination of local recreation services including long-range plans and measures for immediate consideration. Through its many studies it has become a factor of influence in community coordination for recreation, particularly in the larger communities where problems are often more complex.

The Woman's Foundation

The Woman's Foundation, Incorporated, of New York City in 1945 published a report prepared under its auspices by a committee of professional consultants on community reorganization.¹⁸ The significance of recreation and the need for local, state and national action to extend recreation opportunities are given a prominent place. The report stresses the importance of local strengthening of recreation opportunities; interdepartmental state committees to coordinate education, health, recreation and welfare; extension of state functions in these areas; establishment of

¹⁸ *The Road to Community Reorganization*. New York: The Woman's Foundation, Inc., 1945.

a federal department of education, health and welfare including recreation; and community coordinating bodies. The report points out that state responsibility for recreation has not been clearly defined but that it should be placed either in a separate department or in a combination of departments.

Community Chests and Councils, Incorporated

Community Chests and Councils, Incorporated, organized over a quarter of a century ago, assists private local welfare agencies in the development of central financing and planning procedures in the fields of health, welfare and recreation. It has regional representatives throughout the country and provides consultant services to local social welfare agencies. It conducts regional conferences, training institutes, community surveys and social welfare research, and also publishes material for the use of local organizations as well as a monthly newsletter, *The Community*.

The Athletic Institute

Prompted by its interest in the advancement of athletics and recreation, The Athletic Institute of Chicago, a non-profit organization, has exerted some significant influences upon the growth of provision for recreation. Its financial sponsorship of facilities workshops and professional education workshops conducted by national professional societies in recreation and related fields, and its development of publications and visual aids have been notable achievements. In addition, it has provided funds for meetings of representatives of national professional groups in recreation and parks brought together for the purpose of exploring means of closer cooperation and perhaps amalgamation. The Athletic Institute will continue to have an important place in the recreation movement and is in a strategic position to supply needed resources and stimuli at critical points.

Regional Study Groups

In the winter of 1947-48 nine regional study groups sponsored by the Recreation Section of the American Association for

Health, Physical Education and Recreation and the American Recreation Society, and organized for the purpose of considering various pertinent problems in recreation training, were at work in the states of California, Illinois, Indiana, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Washington. Each group was made up of representatives of colleges and universities, recreation agencies, departments of state government and professional recreation societies. The groups' conclusions and recommendations are studied by the national professional societies. The plan represents a good method of local cooperation between training institutions and recreation departments, and in addition, adds to the growing mass of opinion and fact related to the raising of professional standards in recreation. It is a means for considering on the regional level problems faced by the various national conferences on recreation leadership training.

Labor Groups

The C.I.O. and the A.F.L. both support official national committees staffed with field consultants to serve state and local unions as a means of developing relations with community organizations. Only a few state and local unions, however, have recreation consultants on a full-time basis. Examples are the International Ladies' Garment Workers Union of New York City, the Wisconsin Federation of Labor and the United Automobile Workers Union of Detroit.

Other Efforts

A.Y.S.O. (Associated Youth Serving Organizations), now part of the Youth Division of the National Social Welfare Assembly, and U.S.O. (United Services Organizations) are examples of coordination on the national level of organizations having a nation-wide influence in recreation. Planned relationships and cooperative action on the national level have stimulated similar coordination in the local community, although the beginning of inter-agency cooperation originated at the local level as

pointed out by Johns.¹⁹ The National Social Welfare Assembly, recently organized, also provides a means of national coordination in health, welfare and recreation, as do the plans of centralizing federal government health, welfare and education and recreation functions in the Federal Security Administration as part of government reorganization plans. The National Social Welfare Assembly grew out of reorganization of the National Social Work Council in 1945 and 1946. It includes some forty nationally organized social agencies and federal bureaus or departments. The national voluntary agencies account for three-fourths of the Assembly's member units while federal agencies make up the remainder. The Assembly acts as a coordinating influence and an advisory service at the national level. It has plans for the formation of an informal education-recreation division.

The National Conference on Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Health and Physical Education met in December, 1946. The objective of the Conference was to bring together public and private professional leaders and outstanding recreation and physical education facilities architects and landscape engineers to jointly prepare materials to be published for the use of groups and organizations concerned with construction or improvement of facilities for athletics and recreation. The Conference was sponsored by a dozen national professional societies and financed by The Athletic Institute of Chicago. Its purpose was to establish principles for the planning of a system of community-wide inter-related facilities, to determine the kinds of facilities needed and to develop standards for functionally designed facilities. Two publications resulted—*A Guide for Planning Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Physical and Health Education* and *College Facilities for Physical Education, Health Education and Recreation*.

National Professional Societies

Leading national professional organizations in recreation include the American Recreation Society, the American Institute of Park Executives, the American Association for Health, Physical

¹⁹ Johns, Ray. *The Cooperative Process Among National Social Agencies*. New York: Association Press, 1946.

Education and Recreation, the American Association of Group Workers, the American Camping Association, the National Conference on State Parks and the Industrial Recreation Association.

Organized in 1938, the American Recreation Society as of March, 1948, had a membership of 1,300 and twenty-four affiliated organizations of state or local recreation professionals. Since its founding the Society has held an annual conference in conjunction with the National Recreation Congress. In 1946 it changed its name from Society of Recreation Workers of America to American Recreation Society. It publishes a quarterly bulletin and periodical newsletters and plans a national office with a full-time paid executive secretary. Its members include personnel from both public and private agencies. The Society has standing committees on training, study and research, and membership. Its members are full-time professional employees in executive or leadership capacities and members of affiliated associations.

The American Institute of Park Executives is composed chiefly of the executive and assistant executives of public parks and recreation systems, or executive heads of subdivisions thereof. Its object is to gather and disseminate facts and information with reference to public parks, gardens and recreation. It maintains a national office with a full-time executive secretary in Rockford, Illinois. The Institute has three classes of members: Senior Fellows, who have at least five years' experience as executive or assistant executive of a public park or recreation system or as an executive head of a subdivision; Fellows, who are the same as Senior Fellows with the exception of five years' experience and service; Sustaining members, which are in the nature of public commissions or boards whose organization or business is correlated with the work of the Institute. Associate memberships are open to any interested person and to certain commercial organizations. Standing committees are maintained on education; horticulture; park maintenance and operation; membership; national, state and metropolitan parks; airports and airparks; legislation and affiliation; convention program; and Pan American relations. The Institute publishes monthly *Parks and Recreation* which is the official organ of the American Institute of Park Executives, The American Association of Zoological Parks and Aquariums, and the American Association of Botanical Gardens

and Arboreta. Total over-all membership as of March, 1948, was approximately eight hundred.

The American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation had its beginnings in 1885. It is a department of the National Education Association, having become affiliated with that body in 1937. The Association has a membership in excess of fifteen thousand. It has a full-time executive secretary and a full-time consultant in health education, with offices in Washington, D. C. It publishes monthly the *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, and quarterly the *Research Quarterly*. It also publishes numerous pamphlets and bulletins and cooperates with many other professional groups in preparing materials in health, physical education and recreation. The Association's board of directors includes a vice president for the recreation division which at the fifty-third annual convention in April, 1948, was reorganized to be composed of four sections: public recreation, private agencies, college recreation and industrial recreation. At that time the name of the periodical was changed to the *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*. A general section was also added to the Association's structure to be known as camping and outdoor education. Seven district associations cover all parts of the country, and the Association has several affiliated organizations.

Organized in 1936 as the American Association for the Study of Group Work, the American Association of Group Workers as of March, 1948, had a membership in excess of 2,300 comprised mostly of people engaged in leisure-time activities in private social welfare agencies. The Association maintains committees on membership, professional education, publications, legislation, research, and personnel practices. The Association maintains close association with other professional groups, particularly the American Association of Social Workers, the National Committee on Personnel in the Social Services, the American Recreation Society, and the Recreation Policies Committee. The purpose of the Association is to "promote association among educators, recreation and group workers; raise the standards of competence among practitioners; encourage continual study of the basic body of knowledge and skills essential to professional practice; improve personnel practices, including professional

education; encourage research; and provide individual and corporate action on matters affecting the field of practice."²⁰ Local chapters may be formed upon petition by five members of the Association. The Association has its offices in New York City.

Organized in 1924, the American Camping Association as of March, 1948, had some three thousand members. It maintains a national office in Chicago with a full-time executive secretary. It publishes monthly, *The Camping Magazine*, annually, *A Directory of Camps in America*, and periodically, newsletters. The Association holds an annual national conference. Its purpose is to further the interests and welfare of children and adults through camping as an educative, recreative, and character-developing experience. Numerous local chapters are affiliated with the Association.

The National Conference on State Parks was organized in 1921. It maintains a national office in Washington, D. C. with a part-time executive secretary. Its membership is composed chiefly of state park department personnel, civic leaders and employes of the National Park Service and similar agencies. It holds an annual national conference and publishes quarterly, *Planning and Civic Comment*. Special studies and publications are prepared from time to time.

The Industrial Recreation Association, organized in 1941, is made up chiefly of directors of recreation programs in industry. It maintains a national office in Chicago with a full-time executive secretary. It holds an annual national conference and publishes periodic bulletins and newsletters.

There has been for several years evident need for closer association and perhaps federation or amalgamation of national professional societies in recreation. This has been particularly true of recreation and park professional groups because of the close similarity of their purposes. Happily, there are now definite indications that this aspect of professional gap is about to be narrowed.

A very much needed professional group to be composed of college educators training professional recreation personnel is

²⁰ *Application for Membership*. New York: American Association of Group Workers, 1947.

now in the making. Within a few years it should reach a stage of growth which will render it a significant influence in the upgrading of professional education in recreation.

Public and Private Agency Cooperation

In recreation not enough has been done to coordinate public and private programs on the national and state levels. The National Social Welfare Assembly and the National Education-Recreation Council represent some steps in this direction. The A.Y.S.O. and the U.S.O. in the private agency field represent efforts to better coordinate a small part of the total field. Cooperative action of public and private agencies should not be limited to the local scene but should be characteristic of state and national levels as well. In fact, local cooperation and coordination will depend to a degree upon what is done on higher levels. Public and private agency coordination is necessary to fill the gaps in recreation services. Planning and study is needed to determine how best national, state and local public and private organizations can correlate funds, facilities, leadership, public interpretation and leadership training. As just indicated, some effective machinery is already at work in this area. Davis' recent study²¹ is an example of useful investigations in one aspect of this problem. Experiences of the Office of Community War Services of the Federal Security Agency are further evidence of feasibility of federal, state and local cooperation in health, welfare and recreation.²²

An example of good national level cooperation which may lead to practical means of implementing policies agreed upon, is the adoption by public and private agency professional people of a platform on the place of recreation in American life. The twenty point platform that follows was adopted in 1946 by the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, the American Recreation Society and the American Association of Group Workers.

²¹ Davis, Helen E. *The Y.M.C.A. and Public Recreation, Informal Education and Leisure-Time Programs*. New York: Association Press, 1946.

²² *Teamwork in Community Services 1941-1946*. Washington, D. C.: Office of Community War Services, Federal Security Agency, 1946.

1. A program of recreation should be provided in every community—rural and urban—and for all people—children, youth and adults.
2. Opportunities and programs for recreation should be available twelve months of the year.
3. The program of recreation should be planned to meet the interests and needs of individuals and groups.
4. Education for the “worthy use of leisure” in homes, schools and other community institutions is essential.
5. Community planning for leisure requires cooperative action of public and voluntary agencies including civic, patriotic, religious, social and other groups which have recreation interests and resources.
6. A recreation plan for the community should result in the fullest use of all resources and be integrated with long-range planning for all other community services.
7. Wherever possible, federal, state and local agencies should correlate their plans for the planning, acquisition and use of recreation facilities.
8. Recreation facilities, public and private, should be planned on a neighborhood, district and regional basis to provide the maximum opportunities and services for all age groups.
9. Local planning boards, recreation commissions, boards of education and park boards should cooperate in long-range planning for the acquisition, development and use of recreation facilities.
10. Schools should serve as adequately as possible, the education-recreation needs of pupils and be planned so that they will be efficient centers for community use.
11. Parks should be planned wherever possible, to include facilities for sports, games and other recreation activities which are suitable for children, youth and adults.
12. Recreation personnel should have professional training and personal qualifications suited to their specific services.
13. Civil service and/or state certification procedures should be adopted to insure the employment of professionally trained and qualified personnel in public recreation programs.
14. Each agency, organization, or group which has recreation functions and facilities should employ an adequate staff of qualified personnel to meet its share of the community needs.
15. Professional associations and societies on national, state and local levels should cooperate in establishing and improving professional standards and in achieving the objectives of recreation.

16. Every state should create necessary and appropriate enabling legislation which permits every community to plan, finance and administer an adequate public recreation program.
17. Public recreation programs should be financed by tax funds under a department of the local government.
18. Adequate financial support for the recreation services rendered by voluntary agencies should be provided by contributions.
19. A fundamental and continuing obligation of all responsible agencies is to develop a public awareness of the social significance of recreation by interpreting its needs, services and opportunities.
20. Recreation services, actual and potential, should be evaluated continuously in terms of their contributions toward enriching individual and community life.

National Education-Recreation Council

The National Education-Recreation Council was organized in 1932 as the result of a request from a representative of the federal government working under President Hoover's unemployment relief plan. Its original purpose was to bring together national leisure-time agencies to plan for better leisure programs in communities as a means of influencing youth to remain at home rather than roam the country as many were doing at that time. The Council has developed along a plan of self-coordination and cooperation. It provides a means for clearing common problems on the national level in the leisure-time field in place of organizing new groups to discuss problems as they arise. It is a part of the National Social Welfare Assembly. All national groups and organizations and agencies carrying on recreation in communities are eligible to membership in the Council. Exchange of experiences, discussion of problems affecting leisure time on a national scale and consideration of training in the leisure-time field are some of the items to which the Council has given attention.²³ The Council is an informal group in the sense that it has no constitution and no financial resources. Need for the Council merits examination in view of the fact that most member agencies are represented in the Youth Division of the recently organized National Social Welfare Assembly. The proposed

²³ Braucher, Howard. "The National Education—Recreation Council." *Recreation*, February, 1941.

informal education-recreation division of the Assembly will perhaps absorb both.

National Recreation Policies Committee

The National Recreation Policies Committee, a self-appointed group with no agency sponsorship, was organized in 1945.²⁴ It describes itself as a group of persons who can think and act objectively in the best interests of recreation. The Committee is composed of persons recognized as national authorities in public and private recreation agencies, and it reports to the nation as a whole or to any and all groups interested in recreation. Two of the first matters entered into by the Committee were a study of the responsibility of the federal government in recreation and a study of the nature and place of recreation in American life. Reorganization of the Committee is being studied with a view to securing a new basis of membership determination and abolition of its self-perpetuating features.

National Conference on Juvenile Delinquency

The National Conference on the Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency was held in Washington, D. C., under the sponsorship of the U. S. Attorney General in November, 1946. Over eight hundred representatives of federal agencies, state and local governments and private welfare groups attended. Of the sixteen panels into which the Conference was divided, two, community coordination, and recreation and youth—were most closely associated with recreation. The panel on recreation for youth recognized that the right of one to choose his own recreation is a fundamental privilege of all youth, but that youth might be denied that right by the failure of communities to provide means for exercising it. The panel concluded that recreation is a responsibility of every community and recommended that:²⁵

²⁴ "The National Recreation Policies Committee." *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, April, 1947.

²⁵ *The National Conference on Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency*.

1. Existing recreation systems be strengthened and new tax supported systems be established by municipalities and counties where they do not now exist
2. States provide only such recreation programs and facilities that are best administered on a state-wide basis and that they provide consultation services to communities
3. Present federal recreation programs be strengthened and a service of a technical advisory nature be established to assist states and local political sub-divisions through the states
4. Federal agencies in recreation develop new cooperative plans that will increase the effectiveness of their individual services
5. Action be taken by city and county officials, governors and state legislatures and congress to further governmental responsibility for recreation
6. Community recreation demand the mobilization and use of all resources, human, physical, and fiscal; public, private and commercial

The panel made other specific recommendations regarding recreation for youth in public recreation agencies, schools, libraries, camps, institutions, housing; the home, industry, commercial agencies, churches, rural communities; and through radio, motion pictures, newspapers and magazines. Strong emphasis was placed on community coordination and public and private agency cooperation in recreation. The panel listed the following as essential to community programs of recreation for youth: (1) broad, basic legislation; (2) adequate funds to establish and operate programs and services; (3) a wide range of indoor and outdoor recreation areas and facilities; and (4) competent, trained and well-paid leadership as well as capable, trained volunteers. These essentials are identical to community recreation programs for people of all ages.

The panel with respect to federal recreation specifically recommended that:

The federal government strengthen its present authorized recreational programs and seek the establishment of a federal recreation service and such additional authorization necessary to provide the states and political sub-divisions of the states, acting through the states, with technical advice on recreation programs. Federal agencies should be brought together in a cooperative relationship to the end that the federal responsibilities in the field

of recreation can be adequately met in accordance with their separate authorization.²⁶

With respect to states the panel recommended that states provide:

Recreation programs and facilities only where they are best administered on a state-wide basis.

Consultation services on recreation to the several political subdivisions.²⁷

ENCOURAGING SIGNS

Professional societies in recreation and allied professions have entered an era of cooperative procedures in a number of areas related to the advancement of the recreation movement. Developments such as the National Conference on Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Health and Physical Education; the 1937, 1939, 1941 and 1948 College Conferences on Professional Training in Recreation; the Platform on the Place of Recreation in American Life; the 1948 National Conference on Undergraduate Professional Preparation for Health Education, Physical Education and Recreation; the steps toward closer association and perhaps amalgamation of certain professional park and recreation groups; and the regional study groups on professional training in recreation all testify to the desire of professional societies to unite in the provision for adequate planning in several fundamental considerations in recreation. They constitute, indeed, encouraging signs for better community organization for recreation on the national level which, coupled with present increased interest and activity at the state level, will lead to greater competence on the local level.

SUGGESTED READINGS

Books

Johns, Ray. *The Cooperative Process Among National Social Agencies*. New York: Association Press, 1946.

McMillen, Wayne. *Community Organization for Social Welfare*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. Chapters XV and XVI.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 44.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 44.

Social Work Yearbook. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1941, 1943, 1945, 1947.

Vetter, Roy A. *Digest of Laws Relating to Parks and Recreation.* Washington, D. C.: National Park Service, Government Printing Office, 1940.

ARTICLES

Braucher, Howard. "The National Education-Recreation Council." *Recreation*, February, 1941.

Brungardt, Theresa S. "The State of Recreation in the State of Vermont." *Recreation*, June, 1946.

"Contribution of National Education-Recreation Organizations." *Recreation*, February, 1941.

Davis, Charles W. "Public Recreation Moves Forward." *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, February, 1948.

"Federal Agencies in the Education-Recreation Field." *Recreation*, February, 1941.

Key, V. O. "Federal Grants-in-Aid for Recreation." *Park and Recreation Yearbook*, 1938.

Meyer, Harold D. "State Sponsored Recreation to Play Big Part in North Carolina in Future." *North Carolina Public Welfare News*, December, 1946.

——— "State's Responsibility to Local Communities." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1948.

Nisonger, Herschel W. "What a State University Can Do to Further the Work of Community Councils." *Community Coordination*, September-October, 1941.

Nordly, Carl L. "Recreation—A State and Community Responsibility." *Minnesota State High School League Bulletin*, May, 1946.

"Origin, Background, Purpose of Recreation Policies Committee." *American Recreation Society Quarterly Bulletin*, January, 1947.

"Recreation and State Youth Commissions." *Recreation*, June, 1946.

Recreation, February, 1947. Whole issue. (Federal agencies in recreation.)

Recreation, June, 1946. Whole issue. (State agencies in recreation.)

"Recreation Services of State Agencies to Communities." *Recreation*, September, 1947.

Romney, G. Ott. "What Place Should the Federal Government Assume in the Total Recreation Program?" *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1948.

Spence, Ralph B. "The Youth Service Commission of New York State." *Youth Leaders Digest*, January, 1946.

- Weakley, Harold I. and Woodward, Stewart. "Recreation is State Business." *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, May, 1945.
Woodward, Stewart. "State Partnership for Recreation." *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, June, 1946.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

- A Digest of Pennsylvania Laws Pertaining to Public Recreation.* Harrisburg: State Planning Board, 1944.
- A Study of the Park and Recreation Problem of the United States.* Washington, D. C.: National Park Service, Government Printing Office, 1941.
- Activities of Federal Agencies in the Field of Recreation.* Washington, D. C.: Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities, September, 1937.
- Brightbill, Charles K. *Recreation—A New Function of State Government.* Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Recreation Division, 1945.
- *Summary of State Recreation Development.* Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Recreation Division, December 16, 1946.
- Community Relations, Information on National Organizations and Groups, Public and Private.* New York: Girl Scouts, Inc., 1946.
- Davis, Helen E., *The Y.M.C.A. and Public Recreation, Informal Education and Leisure-Time Programs.* New York: Association Press, 1946.
- Eppley, Garrett. *A Guide for Community Recreation in Indiana.* Bloomington: School of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Indiana University, January, 1948.
- Field Recreation Service for State Universities and Other State Agencies.* Bloomington: School of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Indiana University, 1947.
- First Biennial Report.* Raleigh: North Carolina Recreation Commission, June, 1946.
- Gates, Sherwood. *The Stake of Government in the Recreation of All the People.* Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Office of Community War Services, Recreation Division, 1945.
- Hagan, Frank. *A State Recreation Program for Nebraska.* Syracuse University, Unpublished Master's Thesis, 1947.
- Hearings Before a Subcommittee of the Committee on Education and Labor United States Senate on S. 2070.* Seventy-ninth Congress, Second Session. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1946.

- Minutes of the State Recreation Meeting.* Omaha: The Creighton University, Department of Physical Education, October, 1947.
- Memorandum, Community Organization for Health and Welfare on a State-Wide Basis.* New York: Community Chests and Councils, Inc., April, 1946.
- Nelson, Beatrice Ward. *State Recreation.* Washington, D. C.: National Conference on State Parks, 1928.
- New York State Youth Commission Act.* Albany: New York State Youth Commission, 1947.
- North Carolina Recreation Commission.* Raleigh: North Carolina Recreation Commission, 1945.
- Park and Recreation Progress Yearbook.* Washington, D. C.: National Park Service, Government Printing Office, yearly.
- Questions and Answers Concerning the Program of the New York State Youth Commission.* Albany: New York State Youth Commission, April 1, 1947.
- Recreational and Cultural Resources Survey, State of Washington.* Olympia: Office of the Secretary of State, November, 1946.
- Recreation in California.* San Francisco: Committee for the Study of Recreation in California, March, 1947.
- Recreation News and Previews.* Berkeley: California Recreation Executives Association, December, 1946; March, 1947; May, 1947; February, 1948.
- Report on Outdoor Recreation in Georgia.* East Point: Georgia State Planning Board, 1939.
- Report on the Recreational Resources of the People of Minnesota.* St. Paul: Governor's Advisory Committee on Recreation, 1948.
- State Administration of School Health, Physical Education and Recreation.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, Government Printing Office, 1947.
- Summary of Information on Cooperation of State Recreation Agencies Within the Several States.* Washington, D. C.: Federal Inter-Agency Committee on Recreation, January 12, 1948.
- Summary of Recreation Services of State Agencies to Communities.* New York: National Recreation Association, December, 1946.
- Teamwork in Community Services 1941-1946.* Washington, D. C.: Office of Community War Services, Federal Security Agency, 1946.
- The National Conference on the Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency.* Summaries of Recommendations for Action. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1947.
- The Road to Community Reorganization.* New York: The Woman's Foundation, Inc., 1945.

CHAPTER VI

The Schools and Community Organization for Recreation —

The part of the school in initial efforts to provide leisure-time opportunities for the community has been previously noted. The history of community use of schools begins with the first gatherings in school houses of people to discuss the educational program of the locality before the advent of boards of education, and continues on into the period of the rise of adult education and community recreation. Concern now is with the question of present day school-community relationships, particularly with the schools and recreation and more specifically with the place of the school in community organization for recreation.

The major functions of the school with respect to leisure and recreation follow:

1. Educating children in the worthy use of leisure; developing attitudes toward leisure and training in recreation skills
2. Providing opportunity for and leadership in the practice of recreation skills during free periods and after school hours
3. Offering adult education opportunities as an extension of formal and informal education
4. Making available school areas and facilities for community recreation use, including use by self-organized groups and private agencies
5. Participating in area and facility planning with other public bodies such as park, recreation and library boards so as to assure maximum use and accessibility of public properties for recreation of all the people
6. Serving community recreation needs through a program administered by the school, or preferably in joint operation

- with other local governing bodies such as recreation boards
- 7. Participating in community recreation advisory councils and providing leadership resources for such groups
- 8. Providing professional stimulation in community organization for recreation and trained personnel for research, surveys and studies

It is not intended here to discuss the mechanics of recreation programs administered by schools, but to point out the community organization implications of the relation of the school to leisure and recreation. The above major functions, therefore, will be treated in terms of their relationship to other community recreation agencies and to the total provision in the community for recreation opportunities.

A PRIMARY RECREATION AGENCY

Some say that the school is not a primary recreation agency. This viewpoint is correct if it means that the basic purpose of the school is to provide an education, not a leisure-time, program for all the people. Statutes of the several states make this abundantly clear, and legal responsibility for public education is clearly designated. But to view the school as an instrument for the development of the individual mentally, emotionally, morally, socially and physically as a fit member of a democratic society necessitates the acceptance of it as a community institution of basic importance in leisure time and recreation. Proper development and maturity of the individual cannot be achieved without due attention to leisure and recreation as parts of daily living and as integral factors that shape the worthiness of democratic citizens. In this concept lies the relationship between education and recreation, and the reason why the lines of demarcation which could formerly be so clearly defined by some are now invisible even to them.

Recreational education is a responsibility of the school, but not solely its obligation, for the home, the church, private leisure-time agencies, municipal recreation departments and other civic, social and cultural institutions—in short, the community as a whole—share the responsibility. It is, however, perhaps more the

duty of the school than of any other agency to educate for leisure. It thus clearly becomes a primary recreation agency for this reason alone without considering its many other relationships to the leisure life of the community.

Indeed, the first biennial report of the U. S. Department of Education in 1868 contained a statement by Henry Barnard, Commissioner of Education, on the relationship of education and recreation. He wrote: "The science of education includes the science of recreation and elaborate arrangements for the education of a community must be regarded not only as incomplete but as radically unsound in which suitable provisions for physical training and recreation are not included."¹

Over thirty years ago the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, a report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education appointed by the National Education Association, listed "worthy use of leisure" among the objectives of education. To quote:

Education should equip the individual to secure from his leisure the re-creation of body, mind, and spirit and the enrichment and enlargement of his personality.

This objective calls for the ability to utilize the common means of enjoyment, such as music, art, literature, drama, and social intercourse, together with the fostering in each individual of one or more special avocational interests.

Heretofore the high school has given little conscious attention to this objective. It has so exclusively sought intellectual discipline that it has seldom treated literature, art, and music so as to evoke right emotional response and produce positive enjoyment. Its presentation of science should aim, in part, to arouse a genuine appreciation of nature.

The school has failed also to organize and direct the social activities of young people as it should. One of the surest ways in which to prepare pupils worthily to utilize leisure in adult life is by guiding and directing their use of leisure in youth. The school should, therefore, see that adequate recreation is provided both within the school and by other proper agencies in the community. The school, however, has a unique opportunity in this field because it includes in its membership representatives from

¹ Cook, Katherine. "Recreation in the School Program." *School Life*, March, 1946.

all classes of society and consequently is able through social relationships to establish bonds of friendship and common understanding that cannot be furnished by other agencies. Moreover, the school can so organize recreational activities that they will contribute simultaneously to other ends of education, as in the case of the school pageant or festival.²

Today in keeping with the changed concept of education which now holds development of the individual personality to be the major goal instead of merely the tools of learning, the school is actively accepting its responsibility for educating in the area of leisure attitudes and recreation skills. Leisure has become an area of study in many secondary school curricula in addition to being a part of individual subject matter fields. Physical education, for example, is as much concerned with development of recreation skills as with mental and physical fitness. Civic affairs include investigation and analysis of the community's provision for leisure and recreation. English classes provide instruction in writing minutes, framing resolutions and otherwise knowing how to participate in activities of democratic organizations. Social studies provide practice as well as teaching in democratic procedures. Art, music, drama, literature and science instruction include the recreation aspects of these subjects in the modern school. The basis for this approach is that education is concerned with life, and leisure is a part of living.

Curricular developments confined to making pupils acquainted with or skilled in new activities will not be adequate. The plan must be broad enough to include attention to attitudes, appreciations and opportunities. One of the greatest tasks of the recreation movement is to guide people to a better selection of leisure pursuits. The oft-repeated statement that it takes a wise man to secure full benefit from his leisure has many implications for those concerned with education. Efforts must be directed toward developing a philosophy that looks upon leisure as a means of creative achievement, social contribution and fulfillment of personal satisfactions; toward cultivation of a high type of tastes, appreciations and interests; toward fostering of discrimination

² *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, Bulletin, No. 35. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1918, p. 15.

in the choice of leisure pursuits; and toward the growth of social attitudes.

Many school organizations engaged in the revision and development of curricula have produced materials and courses of study in education for leisure. Los Angeles city schools developed a bulletin entitled, *Educational Activities Promoting the Worthy Use of Leisure Time*. It includes suggestions for the development of school activities promoting the right use of leisure. Tulsa Central high school organized a social studies unit on "The Wise Use of One's Leisure." The aim is to provide opportunity for the acquisition of good recreation skills and interests. The unit includes attention to leisure as part of daily living. The admonition is given that time must be allotted for the unit and that probably a double period for at least one semester would be appropriate with the period located in the afternoon hours so that seasonal recreation skills could be participated in by the class. The Chicago schools developed a study outline on "Correlated Handwork" as a means of relating curriculum activities to living and enjoying oneself in the family and in the community. It is based on the recognition of need for stimulus to wholesome recreation. Beaumont, Texas, schools organized a "Course of Study in Music" which stresses the recreation aspects of glee clubs, orchestras and radio music. Surveys of community leisure opportunities have been undertaken by many student groups. The senior class in history of the Kansas City, Missouri, Lincoln high school chose the specific survey topic, "Commercialized and Non-Commercialized Recreation Facilities for Negroes of Kansas City, Missouri." A recent publication (1945) entitled *Time On Your Hands, Choosing and Using Recreation* has been published by the Consumer Education section of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. It is a unit for high school students "to help young people become more intelligent, more effective and more conscientious consumers in the economic system in which they live."

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION IMPLICATIONS

There are obvious implications for community organization for leisure in the school's program of developing recreation skills

and leisure attitudes. The program results in the development of recreation literacy which makes more meaningful the opportunities maintained by the community for leisure and recreation. It also provides an intelligent citizenry which demands an extensive and efficient form of community organization for recreation, as well as produces individuals who are equipped to take an active part in community recreation councils. It further enables community agencies to spend less time on instruction in recreation skills and more time on adequate maintenance of facilities and organization of opportunities for the practice of a wide variety of leisure-time pursuits. It allows community recreation leaders to devote attention to organization, direction and supervision of a more extensive recreation service. And, finally, it makes possible the use of professional recreation leaders as resource people, counsellors and planners.

Schools can also do much to teach the principles and techniques of community organization both directly and indirectly. The indirect approach may be through equipping young people with the tools and attitudes necessary to effective participation in community affairs as members of groups and organizations. English and social studies classes can make a significant contribution in this respect. A more direct approach is afforded by the organization of youth councils and other democratic groups in the school composed of young people themselves; by providing an opportunity for young people to serve on community coordinating groups; by developing community projects for students, such as recreation surveys, observation of coordinating groups in action, and planning of youth activities and centers governed largely by pupils themselves. A good example of the direct approach is the offering of classes in leadership and community projects by Los Angeles high schools. Actual experience is required in some type of community service under supervision. A student council, with teachers as advisers, directs the community service work. Joint meetings are held with adult coordinating councils to provide students with an insight into community needs, programs and problems and to open up avenues of continuity for students to carry on into membership in community councils after they leave high school. This program is designed to provide a better understanding of the processes of

community life and the opportunities for citizens to take part in the things that shape their lives.

USE OF SCHOOL PROPERTIES

School areas and facilities, property of the public, and representing one of the major public capital investments, must have a significant role in community recreation. Insofar as school property use in organized community recreation programs is concerned, several distinct historical steps may be distinguished.

1. The period of original requests by municipal recreation departments for use of school facilities at which time limited use was allowed by school boards to test reliability of municipally employed leadership
2. The use of school faculty personnel as paid leaders or supervisors of programs conducted by municipal recreation departments on school properties
3. The drawing up of written agreements between school boards and city recreation authorities
4. The payment of compensation to school janitors for additional work involved in community use of schools
5. The interpretation to the school board of its responsibilities regarding community use of schools
6. The inclusion of school board representatives on city recreation boards
7. The joint planning of school building programs with other community recreation agencies

Private agencies and self-directed groups, all members of the community, also have a right to use school properties for leisure-time projects.

In order that the school plant may fit into community organization plans for recreation consideration must be given to three factors, namely: provision for leisure opportunities in the regular school curriculum; construction of the school plant, including outdoor recreation areas, to fit it for community recreation purposes; and coordination of school facilities with city planning. Forty years ago William C. Bruce speaking at the National

Education Association meeting in Washington, D. C., said, "The completer the modern school for the education of children, the more nearly is it satisfactory for the recreational use of their elders."

The Michigan Department of Public Instruction published in 1945 *A Guide For Planning School Buildings*. The section on planning for community use states:

The problem in general resolves itself into two classifications. They are, first, planning for the independent use of certain well-defined areas by large groups in connection with social, civic, and recreational activities; and second, the use of diverse areas of the building, particularly the instructional rooms, by numbers of smaller groups forming evening adult education classes.

Planning for uses in the first of these classifications, namely large group use, requires the recognition of the following:

1. Those units most commonly used for community purposes are the:

Auditorium	Library unit
Gymnasium	Locker rooms
Cafeteria unit	Recreation fields
Health service unit	

2. Certain of these units commonly function closely with others and should be situated accordingly: gymnasium and cafeteria unit; gymnasium and locker room; locker rooms and recreation fields.

3. These units should be situated to provide convenient and direct access not only from the rest of the school but also from the outside, without need for passage through other portions of the building.

4. These units should be planned so that they may be used independently of the rest of the building. This involves means for closing off access to other parts of the school, the provision of public toilets, and zoning of the heating system.

5. Adequate car parking space conveniently situated with respect to these units, especially the auditorium, should be provided.

6. Playground equipment storage should be situated near the play areas and directly accessible from the outside.

Planning for uses of the second of these classifications, namely adult education, involves planning for evening activities roughly

paralleling the day-time activities in some or all rooms. Care should be taken to :

1. Provide convenient access to those rooms housing the most popular activities :

Shop unit	Science laboratories
Homemaking unit	Music unit
Commercial unit	Art unit
Library	

2. Group the foregoing rooms insofar as possible for independent access and use and easy supervision.
3. Provide additional storage space, both general and in the rooms, for the extra instructional materials and the unfinished work of the adult groups.
4. Provide administrative space—an Evening Principal's Office—in those schools holding promise of an extensive adult education program.

The American Association of School Administrators and the National Recreation Association have summarized basic principles in planning school buildings for community recreation use and in addition have listed some suggestions for realizing the basic points in a leaflet entitled, "Planning School Buildings for Community Recreation Use."

Combined Planning

Modern needs point to the urgency of combined education-recreation facilities patterns in community planning. Such arrangements have their greatest potentialities in newly planned residential developments and in blighted areas cleared and planned for redevelopment, and less chance in conventional built up areas. The principles underlying combined education-recreation facilities planning, particularly for physical activity recreation, are clearly outlined in *A Guide for Planning, Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Physical and Health Education* prepared by the National Facilities Conference, published by The Athletic Institute, 1947.

Not all of the areas and facilities needed in a complete local public recreation service are amenable to joint education-recreation planning and, therefore, many facilities must necessarily be planned, developed and operated without reference to school properties even where combined planning is achievable.

THE SCHOOLS AS A RECREATION AUTHORITY

Local school districts are not charged by state statute as primarily responsible for public recreation. In some localities, however, because of local needs and wishes of the community, school boards have been given the major responsibility for the conduct of a public recreation service. In other places the schools operate leisure-time programs independently of opportunities offered by other public agencies such as park boards and city councils. In still other communities the schools coordinate their recreation offerings in joint operation with one or more other local governmental bodies, either on a legal agreement basis or through cooperative planning. Most state recreation enabling legislation provides that schools may enter into the operation of community recreation services either on an independent or cooperative basis.

The prominence of the school as a recreation authority will depend in a considerable degree upon the community situation with reference to facilities, areas, and finances made available by municipal government for recreation, and also upon the wishes of the people and the level of understanding on the part of school administrators and board members of their responsibilities in the leisure life of the community. Whatever influence these factors may have upon the specific organization of recreation in the locality, recreation is far too universal and extensive to exclude the need for schools to become a basic part of the leisure-time structure in the community. The enthusiasm and readiness with which the school enters the community recreation field will be conditioned by the:

1. Availability of a progressive type of leadership within the educational administration
2. Availability of proper financial means to support school participation
3. Presence of adequate legal provisions which are broad enough to permit educational systems to enter into legal and cooperative agreements with other recreation authorities
4. Intensity of community demand for the school to become active in community recreation
5. Quantity and quality of professionally trained school personnel competent to function in community recreation

The absence of some or all of the above has a direct relationship to the failure in the past of schools to accept and discharge their responsibilities in recreation. Today, however, the situation is generally favorable in all of the above points, and consequently there is direct evidence of rapid and widespread advancement of the school as a part of the recreation authority of the community.

Much has been said and written on the pros and cons of the school as administrator of the public recreation service. The affirmative arguments may be summarized as follows:

1. Education and recreation are very closely associated.
2. The schools have many of the facilities necessary to a comprehensive program.
3. The schools are already directly and indirectly in contact with most of the people in the community.

Negative considerations take the following general forms:

1. Recreation is secondary, not primary function of schools.
2. School personnel are not trained in voluntary participation programs which are the essence of a recreation service.
3. School administrators and boards have a poor record with reference to use of school facilities for community recreation.
4. The education financial structure would favor education to the detriment of recreation.

The Educational Policies Commission predicts the unification of education and recreation services under one authority. It foresees "The ultimate unification of all public educational activities in communities of appropriate size under the leadership of a 'public education authority.' Patterned after the best recreation boards and boards of education which it supersedes, this authority will be charged with the administration of a community educational program. Its powers will be derived from the state by virtue of existing state responsibility for public education. Its functions will include the provision of a board educational and leisure-time program for persons of all ages."³ The Commission points out that its proposal is one not attainable in the near future but one to be worked toward and achieved in the years

³ *Social Services and the Schools*. Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, 1939, p. 54.

to come. A public education authority to include education, recreation and library services as proposed may yet become a reality, but the appropriateness of such an authority must be evaluated, among other factors, in terms of the need for reorganization of municipal and county government.

Furthermore, it is unlikely that education authorities will seek or be requested to assume responsibility for total public recreation needs. However, the school today has two basic duties in recreation: first, to take its place as a potent, but not sole, recreation force in the community; and, second, to support provision for adequate leisure opportunities in the community as an extension of education for leisure in order to provide for the services that will assure means of practicing recreation skills in daily life.

The one best type of administrative authority for local public recreation, if there is such, has not yet clearly emerged, but the tendency is to create an agency with over all primary responsibility in the nature of a recreation commission. Schools are joining with municipal bodies to provide good recreation opportunities for their communities. At the same time they are developing movements within the school itself that are calculated to contribute to the school's effectiveness as one of the community's recreation resources. Placing school professional personnel on a twelve months basis, developing school plants as recreation facilities and conducting recreation programs for pupils and for others of the community are examples of such movements. Employment of teachers on an eleven or twelve months plan is spreading rapidly and within a few years will be the rule rather than the exception. Those selected to function in recreation, however, must be given special training. One city in the upper midwest which employs two hundred teachers utilizes one hundred each summer in a joint park board-school board recreation program, while fifty attend summer school or travel. The remaining fifty spend their summers developing plans and recommendations to keep the school curriculum abreast of modern needs. Another city is planning to erect ten field houses at a cost of several million dollars for its ten high schools, with full consideration being given to community use of the facilities for recreation purposes.

The San Francisco Board of Education operated four vacation schools in the summer of 1944 and ten in 1945, with a total

daily voluntary attendance of three thousand children.⁴ School personnel act as leaders and are selected on their ability in arts and crafts, music, drama, dancing and physical education. The program consists of a wide variety of recreation activities including swimming instruction, trips, excursions and picnics. Regular school supplies and equipment are utilized and a noon meal is served in the school cafeterias.

In both small and large cities where the school has operated as a part-time recreation authority chiefly through the sponsorship of summer playground programs the department of physical education usually has been in charge of administering the part-time service. This situation has naturally resulted in the employment of leadership basically, and most often entirely, skilled in physical activities. As a consequence recreation opportunities offered under this arrangement have been largely of a sports and game type. Because of certain factors such as the wide appeal of physical activities, lack of understanding by school administrators of the character of a well-rounded recreation program, limited funds necessitating the employment of a small staff to conduct the program, and the recognized leadership ability of the coaching and physical education professions, physical education people have been in a strategic position when personnel have been selected to conduct school recreation programs. Their contributions to recreation have been, are and will continue to be extensive. Present trends, however, recognize the importance of recreation administration as a specialized field and the need for a variety of leadership skills in an adequate program of leisure-time offerings. In this connection it is interesting to note that in Los Angeles, where separate playground services have been operated for many years under the physical education department of the board of education, the playgrounds have been recently transferred from the physical education section to the youth service section and are now the responsibility of school principals as part of the total school program. Seven fields of activity are included in the youth service section: citizenship experience, special interest clubs, athletic clubs and activities, youth service clubs, school social activities, community-school activities, and off-campus activities.

⁴ Goldman, Edward D. "San Francisco Summer Vacation Schools." *Community Organization for Youth Services*, March, 1946.

Limitations of the original program are now dispelled as administration is no longer in the hands of a specialized field of recreation. The program itself not only is inherently improved but also provides greater opportunity for school-community relationships, for an association between the school curriculum and the leisure-time program and for the school recreation services to be an integral part of a community-wide pattern. Operating under this plan, Los Angeles is one of the few cities that has its schools regularly open for recreation on Sundays.

The recreation commission or board, or park and recreation commission, creates a means for public agencies to act cooperatively in maintaining a community recreation service for all the people. State recreation enabling legislation that includes permission for the school district to legally enter into partnership with one or more public bodies to jointly operate a recreation system makes possible the best type of commission. In such cases facilities, funds, personnel and other resources are pooled under the management of a recreation commission created by all who are partners in the joint operation. The commission then becomes the recreation authority of the community and assumes recreation as its one and only function. Recreation commissions that do not include the schools are not in a position to render as efficient service as those which have the school as a basic part of their structure.

Where legal provisions do not provide permission for the schools to officially join a recreation commission, steps should be taken to make such a partnership possible by revising present legislation or adopting new legal permissive measures so that if the community's wishes and needs so indicate the schools can join in a legal recreation partnership. In the absence of, or until realization of, an official partnership the program administered by school authorities should be cooperatively geared into the recreation structure of the community in order to provide optimum leisure-time opportunities for all.

Approximately eighty per cent of all the government recreation authorities (1400) that reported to the National Recreation Association Yearbook for 1947 are recreation, park or school departments. School administered programs amounted to 252 or 17.2

per cent of the 1400 governmental recreation authorities. Of the 252 only twenty-nine reported full-time year-round leadership. Schools, however, were part of many of the programs administered by such agencies as recreation commission, boards, committees, councils and park boards. It is apparent that most recreation programs administered under the schools as the recreation authority are part-time programs, usually summer playground programs. Approximately 170 Minnesota communities reported summer programs in 1945. Over one-half of them were administered by school boards and approximately fifty per cent of the funds spent by the communities reporting were school funds.

In the small community where the recreation service is just coming into existence there is much justification for the school to act as the recreation authority. In such localities the school people understand best the need for leadership, and they control resources in personnel and facilities necessary to a successful program. As a recreation authority the school of course must provide means, such as an advisory recreation council, for all groups and agencies to have a voice in the recreation service of their community. A movement of much concern for recreation in the smaller community is the plan of various state high school league organizations to encourage high schools to engage athletic coaches on a year-round basis. One major stated purpose of this plan is to create a more attractive position for coaches whose retention is desired. Those advocating the plan also point out that it is a means for providing the community with leadership for a summer recreation program as the first step in realization of an adequate recreation service for the locality. Proponents of the plan should proceed with caution for there is danger of misinterpretation. To name an individual as director of a summer recreation program primarily on the basis of his position as high school coach rather than on his qualification for the recreation job would constitute a false premise. On the other hand, if he is to confine his efforts to the development of a summer athletic program for limited groups of high school students, there is again a danger of misinterpreting recreation in that the part may be mistaken for the whole. To adequately assure success the summer recreation aspects of a year-round position for high

school athletic coaches must be geared into a community approach to a recreation service. "The average physical education teacher, and certainly the coach, is not trained to organize and administer a broad, diversified and cultural recreation program."⁵

SCHOOL CAMPING

Camping—a part of the outdoor education movement—is emerging as a recreation and education function of the schools. Virginia, Michigan and New York have state school camping laws.⁶ The Virginia legislature in 1940 passed an enabling act permitting city and county boards of education to operate summer vacation camps. The law provides for individual or joint board operation.

In 1945 the Michigan legislature enacted a law enabling school districts, except primary school districts, to operate camping programs as part of the regular curriculum. The law authorizes boards of education to operate and maintain a camp or camps for resident and non-resident pupils for recreational and instructional purposes. Local school boards may cooperate with other school districts or with municipalities or individuals in any fashion they desire. Fees may be charged but the operation must be on a non-profit basis. The cost of operations may be included in the determination of the per capita costs of the regular school program. School districts are authorized to acquire, equip and maintain necessary facilities and to employ personnel. Private contributions may be accepted and private property used with the consent of the owner. Age and other entrance requirements are determined by the school district.

The Desmond School Camp Bill passed by the New York legislature in 1944 provides school districts outside New York City with power to establish camps on lands acquired by the school district for camp purposes or on land acquired by schools through purchase, gift or grant. The camps are to furnish education, physical training, recreation and other such instruction as the

⁵ Nordly, Carl L. "School Athletics in Community Recreation." *American School Board Journal*, March, 1947, p. 29.

⁶ *Camping and Outdoor Education*. The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, May, 1947.

board may declare proper for school children. The school authorities are authorized to appropriate funds necessary to carry out the provisions of the law. All school children may attend for two weeks without charge. Non-public school children may also attend the camps. Another New York law authorizes city boards of education to establish camps in state parks adjacent to cities. School age children are allowed to attend free for two weeks; and handicapped or other children may attend for longer periods at the discretion of the school board. A third New York law applies to New York City where the Board of Estimate and Appropriations is given financial control and the power to designate the city department which is to administer the camps. Ten hours per week instruction in certain subjects is a requirement of the law.

In other states general or specific recreation enabling laws empowering school districts to operate recreation programs and to acquire and maintain recreation properties are often cited as authority for school sponsored summer camps.

John W. Studebaker, former U. S. Commissioner of Education, has advocated a plan for a twelve months school year with a portion of the year being devoted to camping opportunities for each child.⁷ He believes that school authorities should plan on investing some of their building funds in the acquisition of camp land and erection of camp facilities in lieu of spending all their funds on the usual type of school building. Seventy-five school systems are experimenting with camping as part of the curriculum and eighteen teachers colleges have required courses in camping as a part of their teacher training programs. Battle Creek, Long Beach and San Diego are examples of cities where boards of education are expanding into the camping field as a part of basic education procedure. Each operates a full-time year-round school camp. Los Angeles public schools conduct camping programs for children from twelve to sixteen years of age. San Diego has a city-county camping commission which operates the school camp. New York City's public schools authorized an experimental camp for two school groups for the last three weeks of the 1946-47 school year. The groups were accompanied by

⁷ "Why Not a Year-Round Educational Program." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1948.

their two regular classroom teachers. The experiment was conducted in cooperation with Life Camps, Incorporated.⁸ Battle Creek has an extensive school camping program. Adopted in September, 1944, after an experimental period, the program provides a two week camp experience for all fifth and sixth grade boys and girls.

STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

A recommendation adopted by the Council of Chief State School Officers at its 1945 meeting in Baltimore commits the Council to the belief that school and community recreation is appropriately an integral part of a comprehensive education program. There is increasing evidence that state departments of education are giving more attention to the school's part in community recreation. This is a proper and needed development because of two considerations, if no others. In the first place, it indicates that the chief public education agency of the state recognizes the relationship between the schools and recreation, and in the second place, it provides a means of guidance for local school districts in assumption of their responsibilities in recreation. Indeed, some state laws pertaining to the schools and recreation, particularly community recreation, place upon the state department definite responsibilities relating to various factors involved in the use of school facilities, funds and personnel in recreation. Some examples of state department of education activities in leisure education and recreation are preparation of curricular materials, approval of school building plans, consultant service in the establishment and improvement of recreation programs, teacher certification requirements, regulations pertaining to school playgrounds, and equipment and bulletin service on recreation program suggestions.

The Iowa State Department of Public Instruction in 1932 developed a two year course of study for high schools in home economics which includes subjects related to leisure-time activities in the first year, and in the second year to material on family relationships which aims to promote the recreation life of the

⁸ *Extending Education Through Camping*. New York: Life Camps, Incorporated, 1948.

family. In 1934 the Nevada State Department of Education in Book I of its high school course of study outlined materials on leisure-time activities related to visual education, music and art. It includes suggestions on means of using clubs, hobbies, assemblies and other school activities to supplement the regular curricular program of English, ancient and modern languages, natural and social sciences, commercial and social subjects and art and music. To gather the material questionnaires were sent to parent-teacher groups, service clubs, teachers, farm bureaus and students. Some newer curricular materials are represented by the 1942 *Louisiana Guide for Teaching in the Primary Grades* which lays stress on the leisure-time values of the creative arts. It states that "The creative arts and the recreation field furnish the opportunity to develop the desirable understandings, appreciations, attitudes, skills and way of living which prepare pupils for wise use of leisure. All pupils should have the opportunity to engage in creative arts and recreation throughout their school years." The Missouri State Department of Education in 1944 in its publication, *Language Arts; Reading, Supplementing the Course of Study for Elementary Grades*, states that "Recreation reading . . . may be used by children to develop new interests, to widen present interests, to develop imagination, to develop attitudes and opinions, to live vividly experiences read about and to spend free time." A new course of study prepared by the Texas State Department of Education includes a section on high school recreation activities.

In Pennsylvania, and also in some other states, the State Department of Public Instruction must give approval to all plans for new school buildings. This provision has resulted in increased use and adaptability of school plants for recreation. It insists on adequate planning for recreation facilities.

Supervision of instruction by members of state education department staff members in physical education, music, art, industrial arts and other fields which have recreation values and implications is a means of developing the contribution of school subjects to leisure education and recreation skills. While some states are making plans to create a position of supervisor of recreation in their state departments of education, the duties of that position are in many cases now being partially discharged by

personnel who have primary responsibilities in other fields, notably physical education. Montana has a state supervisor of physical education and recreation; Minnesota has a state supervisor of health, physical education, recreation and safety; Michigan has a division of health, physical education, recreation, school camping and outdoor education; Washington has a recreation division operated through part-time services of two staff members; Pennsylvania has a staff member in charge of recreation; California has created a position of full-time supervisor of recreation; Ohio has a state supervisor of health, physical education, recreation and safety; New York has a state supervisor of physical education and recreation. Many other states have similar types of plans.

Two states that provide state aid to local school districts for recreation are Pennsylvania and Washington. The State Department of Public Instruction in Pennsylvania provides state aid to local education authorities offering recreation opportunities in their extension education activities for out-of-school youth and adults. The Washington State legislature in 1945 appropriated \$250,000 for state aid to recreation programs administered by local school districts. The program, state-wide and school-coordinated, is sponsored by the state office of public instruction. Present laws allow the school district to spend its funds only for recreation programs for children, but state aid funds may be used for adult recreation programs. The state department provides consultant services and financial aid on a matching basis involving local services, funds or use of facilities. In 1947 the legislature again appropriated \$250,000 for state aid for local recreation in Washington. New York State has assisted many municipalities financially in recreation and in doing so indirectly aids some school districts.

COMMUNITY ADVISORY RECREATION COUNCILS

In addition to being a part of recreation departments or commissions that operate as local recreation authorities the schools have a unique contribution to make to advisory recreation bodies and to community councils in general. This contribution may be made through instructional activities and by participation of school personnel as official or private members of community

councils. On the other hand, the schools have a great deal to receive from such associations in the form of participation in community planning, integration of school-community resources, more effective means of interpreting school needs, and greater insight into community attitudes and forces that shape the life of the community. The superintendent or a board member should serve on community councils so that the schools are represented by someone who can speak with authority on school policies and needs. The schools through instruction for adults in community leadership, principles of community organization, methods of conducting group meetings, techniques of committee work and means of discovering needs and resources can do much to assure successful community councils.

School personnel are trained in specific areas of knowledge, in research techniques and in leadership, all of which render them competent and essential members of community coordinating councils. School personnel as private members of the community, even though not designated as school representatives, have much to contribute to the council and as such should exert their ability and leadership. Much of the survey work and data gathering projects of the council can be greatly aided by school people trained in research and objective thinking. Writing of reports and presentation of graphic data also can be expedited by persons accustomed to developing such materials. School personnel can also serve as consultants to community councils and groups on specific problems and general procedures.

An illustration of the possibilities in working with community councils and other community agencies is afforded by a series of experimental cooperative efforts in New York City school community centers.⁹ They include eleven centers operated in cooperation with neighborhood community councils which supply a portion of funds necessary to develop an extended program and act in an advisory capacity; a three-way partnership formed by a local council, the Y.W.C.A. and the Board of Education to be studied over a period of several years as one method of developing a school community center program; and an experimental

⁹ McCloskey, Mark A. "A Plan for Community Service." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1948.

youth and adult community center organized by the Board of Education in cooperation with lay groups and private agencies in two neighborhoods. In each instance local councils have a voice in the type of program decided upon and a part in developing it.

The school camping program also represents an excellent opportunity for the school to work with community advisory councils. Each of the three full-time, year-round school camps now in operation has such a group to aid in cooperative planning.

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Any discussion of the schools and recreation must include the place of universities and colleges. The opportunities and responsibilities they have in leisure and recreation follow:

1. Organizing opportunities on the campus for students to acquire and practice recreation skills
2. Developing attitudes and appreciations of the significance of leisure on the part of all students through applications of curricular materials to leisure-time objectives and by offering specific courses of an orientation nature regarding leisure and recreation.
3. Including in the training of prospective teachers materials designed to create an understanding of the recreation implications of the school program and of specific subject matter courses, and training in recreation leadership skills and in principles and practices of community leadership
4. Developing specialized curricula for the training of full-time recreation leaders and administrators for public, private, voluntary, industrial and commercial recreation services.
5. Providing recreation services to the communities of the state through:
 - a. Recreation consultant services of a field visit nature as well as through correspondence and publication of bulletin materials
 - b. Research on the problems of administration, finance, facilities, leadership, program and community organization as they relate to recreation services
 - c. Offering training courses, conferences and institutes for

education in community and recreation leadership especially for lay people

d. Providing specialized services through agricultural and general extension divisions and music, drama, art and visual education departments

Of the above the last point, services to the community, provides the greatest direct influence on community organization for recreation. State universities today receive more requests than ever before from the people of the state for services of various kinds of which recreation is one. As institutions of this type continue to recognize and expand the philosophy that holds the university campus to be state-wide in nature, they will render an ever increasing amount of service to the communities of each state.

In the early 1920's recreation began to receive direct attention in the Agriculture Extension Service which was established by Congress through the Smith-Lever Act of 1914. The Service is jointly administered by U. S. Department of Agriculture, land grant colleges and county governments. In a few states farm organizations are also part of the administrative plan. All land grant institutions support the program and through it they maintain contact with rural communities of their states. In addition to the 4-H Club program which is a basic part of the structure, the Service with reference to community organization has developed community councils in rural areas, conducted leadership training programs and organized community recreation programs. The Universities of Cornell, Purdue, Ohio State, Massachusetts and Pennsylvania State College are some of the institutions that employ full-time recreation specialists or rural community organization experts for field service to rural communities. The Universities of North Dakota, Delaware, Iowa, New York, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania State College are all prominent in development of community theatres.

Examples of several other college and university services to communities are the Community Program Service of the University of Minnesota Department of Concerts and Lectures; the Bureau of Community Planning of the College of Fine and Applied Arts of the University of Illinois; the School of

Community Service of the University of Tennessee; and the Bureaus of Recreation and of Community Drama of the University of North Carolina.

Recreation consultants within the past two years have been appointed at several universities, as indicated previously. They provide a field recreation consultant service to communities throughout the state. They make recreation surveys, assist in forming community recreation councils, undertake research problems, and provide counsel and assistance on matters relative to recreation planning, administration, finance, legal considerations, leadership, program and community relationships.

An interesting approach to the recreation problems of university students is that of the University of Minnesota which in 1947-48 had a full-time enrollment approximating 29,000 students. In June, 1946, President J. L. Morrill appointed a Special Committee on General Recreation for the purpose of educating all students to manage their leisure time more efficiently; of studying present recreation programs; and of developing better organized and more comprehensive recreation opportunities for the entire student body. The Committee began its work by taking an inventory of all leisure-time opportunities available on and off the campus through university offerings and student clubs and organizations, as well as by conducting an over-all campus poll with reference to student opinions and preferences regarding their present recreation pursuits, the adequacy of recreation facilities and equipment, the amount of time available for leisure pursuits, the adequacy of opportunities to learn recreation skills and the availability of opportunities to practice recreation interests. A significant conclusion reached by the Committee pointed out that the principles of community organization for recreation should be applied to the campus as a community. It recommended that two coordinating committees be established, one to be composed of staff representatives of all university departments concerned with student recreation, and the other to consist of representatives of all student groups concerned with leisure and recreation. Another recommendation called for the appointment of a professional recreation person as coordinator of campus recreation.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON DELINQUENCY

Conclusions reached by the 1946 National Conference on the Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency with reference to recreation and schools may be summarized as follows:¹⁰

1. School facilities should be operated, beyond school hours, as community centers. Education for leisure should also be given through the school curriculum and otherwise in the choice of leisure-time activities.
2. Schools should complement the home in planning for the leisure-time choices and activity skills.
3. Schools should join with park boards, recreation commissions, social agencies, youth-serving organizations and other recreation organizations in a coordinated approach to recreation.
4. An advisory community-school recreation committee is essential.
5. State legislation is often needed to empower school districts to spend funds to operate recreation programs.
6. The functional design of school facilities should provide for school and community use.
7. When schools operate recreation programs, leaders trained in recreation should be employed. These duties should not be assigned to teachers as an extra duty, or to teachers who may not have the necessary qualifications.
8. Training and experience in the leadership of recreation activities should be included in the professional preparation of teachers.

SUGGESTED READINGS

Books

College Facilities for Physical Education, Health Education and Recreation. Flushing, New York: The College Physical Education Association, 1948.

Creative Schools. Washington, D. C. Twenty-third Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1944.

Education for All American Children. Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, 1948.

¹⁰ *The National Conference on the Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency*, p. 50.

- Educational Diagnosis.* Washington, D. C. National Society for the Study of Education, Yearbook, 1935. Chapter XXIII.
- Extending Education Through Camping.* New York: Life Camps, Incorporated, 1948.
- Hanna, Paul. *Youth Serves the Community.* New York: Appleton-Century Co., 1938.
- Humphreys, Edith O. *College Unions.* Ithaca, New York: Willard Straight Hall, 1946.
- Jones, A. M. *Leisure Time Education.* New York: Harper and Bros., 1946.
- Krug, Edward and Quillen, James. *Living in Our Communities.* Chicago: Scott Foresman and Co., 1946.
- Lies, Eugene T. *The New Leisure Challenges the Schools.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1933.
- Olsen, Edward G. and others. *School and Community.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945. Chapters XI, XVII, XVIII.
- Pangburn, W. W. *Adventures in Recreation.* New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1936.
- Williams, Jesse F. and Brownell, Clifford W. *The Administration of Health and Physical Education.* Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1946. Chapter XVII.
- Works, George A. and Lesser, Simon O. *Rural America Today.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942. Chapters VIII, X, XII, XIII.
- Youth Education Today.* Washington, D. C.: Sixteenth Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, 1938.

ARTICLES

- Braucher, Howard. "Recreation and the Schools." *Recreation*, September, 1940.
- Butler, George D. "Recreational Planning in Relation to School Plant Planning." *American School Board Journal*, December, 1934, and January, 1935.
- Castle, A. W. "Organization of Recreation Program Through State Extension Education." *Pennsylvania Recreation*. Newsletter Pennsylvania Recreation Association, April, 1947.
- Cook, Katherine. "Recreation in the School Program." *School Life*, March, 1946.
- Daniels, A. S. "Report of National Survey of Student Recreation in Colleges and University." *Research Quarterly*, October, 1940.
- Dimock, Hedley S. "How Effective is Our Education for Leisure?" *Recreation*, December, 1937.

- Dowling, G. A. "Education's New Responsibility." *Recreation*, September, 1945.
- Eginton, Daniel P. "Modern Principles of Education for Leisure." *Recreation*, September, 1934.
- Evans, W. "How the School Serves Our Community." *Agricultural Education Magazine*, February, 1945.
- Find, S. F. "Neighborhood Councils in School and Community Life." *National Elementary Principal*, September, 1945.
- Haislet, Edwin L. "Should Our Schools Extend the Whole Year with a Modified Curriculum for Summer Months?" *Minnesota Journal of Education*, January, 1940.
- Herron, John S. "The Community School vs. Community Recreation." *American School Board Journal*, May, 1944.
- Irons, J. R. "Coordinating Councils and the Public Schools." *School Executive*, January, 1942.
- Levenson, S. "Give the Schools Back to the People." *Progressive Education*, November, 1943.
- "Losses and Gains if Recreation in My City Were Centralized in the School Board." *Proceedings National Recreation Congress*, 1937.
- Masters, Hugh B. "A Community School Camp." *Elementary School Journal*, June, 1941.
- May, Elizabeth. "Guidance in Education for Leisure." *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, December, 1946.
- McCloskey, Mark A. "A Plan for Community Service." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1948.
- McClusky, Howard Y. "Camping Comes of Age." *The Camping Magazine*, November, 1947.
- Moehlman, A. B. "Why a Community School?" *Nations Schools*, March, 1944.
- Nordly, Carl L. "School Athletics in Community Recreation." *American School Board Journal*, March, 1947.
- "Our New Summer Program." *Minnesota State High School League Bulletin*, March, 1947.
- Pendry, Elizabeth R. "Cooperating with Character-Building Agencies." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, March, 1937.
- "Recreation—A School Responsibility." *Education for Victory*, February 20, 1945.
- "School Camps." *Education for Victory*, July 3, 1944.
- "School Forests in Wisconsin." *Recreation*, September, 1946.
- Scott, Harry A. "The School as a Coordinating Agency for Leisure-Time Activities." *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, October, 1938.

- Seman, Philip L. "Schools and Recreation." *Youth Leaders Digest*, January, 1948.
- "Shall School Boards Control Public Recreation?" *American School Board Journal*, August, 1937.
- Sharp, L. B. "Basic Planning for Camping and Outdoor Education." *The American School and University*, 1946.
- . "Why Outdoor Camping and Education?" *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1948.
- Smith, Julian W. and Ryder, W. C. "Education in Conservation." *Michigan Conservation*, October, 1946.
- Studebaker, John W. "Why Not a Year-Round Educational Program?" *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1948.
- Sutton, Willis A. "Organized Camp as an Adjunct to the Public Schools." *Park and Recreation Yearbook*, 1941.
- Van Til, W. A. "School Camping." *Toward a New Curriculum*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development. Yearbook, 1944.
- Watson, Goodwin. "A New Secondary School." *Progressive Education*, April, 1931.
- West, Wilbur D. "Teachers Go Camping." *Educational Leadership*, March, 1946.
- Yourman, Julius. "Community Coordination—The Next Movement in Education." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, February, 1936.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

- A Guide for Planning School Buildings*. Lansing: Michigan Department of Public Instruction, 1945.
- A Suggested Education and Recreation Program for St. Paul, Minnesota*. St. Paul: City Planning Board, October, 1947.
- Camping and Outdoor Education*. The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, May, 1947.
- Camps and Public Schools*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, Circular No. 74, February, 1933.
- Community Use of Schools—Fact Sheet*. Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Office of Community War Services, 1944.
- Conduct of School Community Centers*. New York: National Recreation Association, 1946.
- Education and Recreation*. Harrisburg: Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, September, 1945.
- Fitzgerald, G. B. *Relationship of the School Curriculum to Education for Leisure*. Minneapolis: Department of Physical Education and

- Athletics. Recreation Division, University of Minnesota, March, 1940.
- Leisure Time Resources in Minneapolis*. Minneapolis: Public Schools, March, 1937.
- Mackintosh, Helen K. *Camping and Outdoor Experiences in the School Program*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1947.
- Planning School Buildings for Community Recreation Use*. Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators and National Recreation Association, 1944.
- Policies Involved in the After School Use of Public School Equipment by the Community*. Minneapolis: Y.M.C.A., December, 1937.
- Public School Buildings in Owensboro, Kentucky*. Lexington: Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky, 1946.
- Recreation Services in California Public School Districts*. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1948.
- References on Leisure Education*. Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, September, 1937.
- School and Community—A Bibliography*. Nashville: George Peabody College, August, 1944.
- School—Community Relationships*. New York: National Recreation Association, 1940.
- Social Services and the Schools*. Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, 1939.
- Special Activities in Physical Education for High School and Adult Groups*. Sacramento: State Department of Education, Bulletin No. 14, July, 1934.
- Teen-Age Centers*. New York: National Recreation Association, 1944.
- The Schools and Community Organization*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, Government Printing Office, 1944.
- The Schools and Recreation Services*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, Government Printing Office, 1944.
- Time On Your Hands, Choosing and Using Recreation*. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1945.
- Youth Serves the Community*. New York: Community Chests and Councils, Inc., 1946.

CHAPTER VII

The Local Public Recreation Authority ~

The principle that recreation is neither the sole responsibility nor the exclusive right of any one community agency, does not preclude the placing of authority for the public recreation service of the community. Indeed, such designation is the base of the triangle of local public recreation, the two sides being a sound basis of financial support and the existence of a community advisory recreation council. The reasons why recreation is a proper public function, a responsibility of local government, have been outlined in Chapter II. Government is an institution which people have created to provide certain essential services that each could not provide for himself so economically or so efficiently. It is an organized structure of order and function which is necessary to the orderly progression of mankind. In a democracy it becomes a government "of the people, by the people and for the people." It is a partnership in which all share and from which each derives certain dividends in the nature of essential social services and protection of individual rights. To government are entrusted specific functions which properly discharged by elected representatives and civil servants result in services necessary to the welfare of the people. Well known among these are education, transportation, police and fire protection, health, library services, public utilities in some instances, courts of law, public assistance—and recreation. Each person supports the functions by a system of financial levies and receives in return rights to a minimum level of service. The democratic theory of government holds that governmental services are a common responsibility for which taxes are paid on the basis of individual resources. In return are received services agreed upon as a public responsibility. Public responsibility for a service is based on the conclusion by the

people that the service concerned is necessary to and good for the welfare of the community.

ADMINISTRATION

Recreation is a recent service in terms of recognition as a fit subject for governmental concern. Recreation, like education, is for all the people. To be available to all, recreation must be a service supported by everyone, a locally financed and administered function of government operating as a public system of leisure-time opportunities the year-round. Just as there are private education institutions, private crime investigators and private health agencies, so are there also privately supported recreation services existing side by side in the community with public recreation systems. This is no anomaly. In recreation, the essence of which is freedom to choose, it is fitting and proper, yes, necessary, that many groups and organizations be active. Recreation is a broad interest that streams through many life activities and human associations.

The public recreation system provides equal opportunities for all. It is augmented greatly by non-profit private and voluntary leisure-time agencies such as the Boy Scouts, Y.M.C.A., settlement houses and others. In addition, profit seeking commercial recreation opportunities—some economically available to all, such as the motion pictures, and others catering to a more limited economical group, such as riding stables, and self-supporting high membership fee ventures, such as exclusive men's clubs—are other examples of leisure opportunities in the community. Thus there are certain opportunities for those who can afford to buy leisure-time services of a more luxurious and exclusive type, although not necessarily a more satisfying type. It is not the duty of the basic public recreation system to provide these services.

The administrative form of the local recreation authority exhibits a number of variations. The structure, resources and philosophy of existing local public agencies which have a responsibility in recreation plus the history, characteristics, needs and wishes of the community will combine to affect the method by which the public recreation service is administered. State and local

legal provisions will also exert certain influences. In general, the four plans which follow can be readily identified as the most usual means of administration:

1. A recreation department administering recreation as a single function under the jurisdiction of the city council or county board
2. A recreation commission administering recreation as a single function and composed of representatives of two or more public bodies such as the city government, county government, park board or board of education and including lay representatives
3. A park and recreation department which administers recreation in conjunction with park services
4. A recreation department administered by school authorities as the community recreation service or as a separate additional service alongside the municipal recreation authority

Other types of recreation administration which are not common but which further illustrate community variance include special recreation districts, departments of public works, departments of public welfare, and, during World War II, defense and war councils. In a few small cities private authorities furnish the major recreation service.

In 1924 slightly over seven hundred cities reported recreation leadership and facilities in the 1925 Yearbook of the National Recreation Association. By 1933 the number had risen to 1,036. In 1934 due to emergency work relief projects the number jumped to 2,190, of which 1,165 represented communities providing regular recreation service and 1,025 represented cities operating recreation under work relief programs only. The National Recreation Association Yearbook of June, 1947, which lists community recreation statistics for 1946, includes data on 1,530 municipalities—towns, cities, counties, townships and park and school districts representing a total of 1,743 communities. Of the municipalities reporting 1,400 had public recreation departments. As the submission of data is a voluntary affair it is clear that many hundreds more communities support full-time or part-time recreation services. The Yearbook itself states that approximately three hundred communities known to have conducted programs

under leadership or to have operated facilities in 1944 did not submit a report for 1946. Certainly the number of communities that support either full or part-time recreation services is far beyond two thousand. An example of the incompleteness of the Yearbook figures is illustrated by Minnesota which had seventy-one communities listed in the 1947 publication, whereas 172 reported to the state department of education that they had conducted programs. And this figure still does not represent all, for the state department of education's source of data was local school superintendents. Those whose school systems were not involved in the community recreation service did not submit a report on programs carried on under city or village council sponsorship. Any community that conducts a playground, indoor center or community-wide recreation program under leadership or that operates a golf course, swimming pool or bathing beach under supervision is entitled to submit a report to the Yearbook. Of the 1,400 localities reporting governmental recreation service in 1946, 648 supported full-time year-round leadership. States reporting the largest numbers of communities as maintaining recreation services were Pennsylvania 130, New York 127, California 103, Illinois 76, Michigan 76, New Jersey 72, and Minnesota 71. States reporting the smallest numbers were Nevada three, Delaware three, Maryland six, New Mexico six, Arkansas seven, Arizona seven, Mississippi eight, and Louisiana nine.

Recreation authorities in the 1,400 communities with governmental recreation service were led by those administering recreation as a single function, such as recreation commissions, boards, departments, committees and councils. Over forty per cent of the governmental recreation systems were administered by a separate board, commission or department. The statistics of the Yearbook indicate a continuing trend to set up recreation as a distinct function of local government with a managing authority that has no other duties, and a legal policy making board or commission is the most prevalent type of managing authority. The single function plan accounts for the majority of full-time recreation leaders. Ninety per cent of the separate recreation departments had some type of official citizen group to assist in recreation planning. Combination park and recreation departments were second in prominence as the local recreation authority, while

schools were third. Three hundred and ninety private organizations, such as youth center boards, P.T.A.'s, civic leagues and memorial building associations, some of which provided the major recreation service in their communities, reported.

A study of 370 communities operating summer recreation programs in 1944 revealed that thirty-eight, or over ten per cent of the programs, were new.¹ Agencies that sponsored the programs were of five main categories: municipal and county governments or legal subdivisions; recreation committees, departments, councils and commissions; school boards; civic organizations; and private group-work agencies. A combination of the above represented a sixth administrative pattern, with the first two plans being the most common. The following sponsorship was reported for 318 programs:

Recreation departments, committees and commissions	107
City-county governments	56
School boards	36
Civic organizations	54
Private group-work agencies	16
Others	22
Combinations of the above	27

Combined Park and Recreation Authority

The recent trend in some states to combine park and recreation functions under a single governing authority is worthy of special attention. The principle on which such amalgamation is based is that parks exist for recreation of the people. Courts have consistently upheld the use of parks as sites for recreation facilities and programs. Advocates of a single park and recreation authority give the following reasons why such an arrangement is desirable:

1. Dual use of office and field manpower, equipment, supplies and working hours is made possible.
2. Recreation activities are encouraged in traditional parks and

¹ *Summer Recreation. A Report of Community Programs.* Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Office of Community War Services, Recreation Division, Government Printing Office, 1945.

- demands are thus created for additional park-recreation areas.
3. Existing park departments have status and security, and affiliation with them provides similar advantages for recreation, especially where a recreation service is being inaugurated.
 4. One budget request instead of two is possible, thus enhancing the chances of adequate funds being granted.
 5. Centralized planning of programs, services and land acquisition is made possible.
 6. Economical and efficient administration is a logical outcome.

Those who do not favor a single park and recreation authority give the following as disadvantages of such a plan:

1. Recreation is added to or absorbed by park departments and thus may have the status of a junior partner.
2. A single park and recreation authority may feel self-sufficient and thus may not experience a compelling need to enter into a cooperative or coordinative partnership with the schools.
3. Where two functions are combined under one administration, divided attention may result in insufficient provision for one of the two.

STATE ENABLING LEGISLATION

During the early history of recreation, the period which brought the establishment of children's playgrounds in urban areas, state enabling legislation for local recreation was not important because large cities relied on their home rule charters for necessary authorization. The action of the Massachusetts legislature in passing recreation legislation applicable to cities over 10,000 population in 1908 is an example of early developments in recreation enabling legislation. By 1929 twenty-one states had adopted recreation enabling acts of a broad nature, and twelve of these states authorized a special tax levy for recreation purposes. Today all states have some laws affecting local park or recreation services or both. State legislation designates the local bodies authorized to operate public recreation programs and also usually includes power to appropriate funds, buy land, erect buildings and employ leadership. In some states several recreation laws pertain to cities of various classes, county or township government units and school districts. Others, such

as Michigan whose recreation law dates back to 1917, have one general law of an inclusive nature and broad enough to provide for any form of local recreation authority the local community may desire.

Recreation enabling acts may be classified as general acts of a broad nature and special purpose acts with reference to a specific phase of recreation, such as school community centers, parks and music.

Florida, Utah, Georgia, Pennsylvania, Michigan and Minnesota provide examples of general recreation enabling acts of a broad nature. Briefly, they authorize any division of local government, such as the county, city, village or school district, to maintain and operate a program of public recreation for all the people with tax funds. Most of them also provide for legal cooperation between the municipal corporation and the school district. The general broad enabling act is important in the home rule states as well as in others, in order that municipalities which have not adopted a home rule charter may have the necessary authorization to conduct recreation. California, Ohio, Wisconsin, New York, Indiana and Oklahoma are some of the states which have adopted special purpose recreation enabling acts. Some refer to school community centers, some to physical education and others to youth centers.

The importance of including in state recreation enabling legislation authority for legal cooperation between school and municipal authorities to create a unified recreation system cannot be over-emphasized. Where two or more separate services exist there is no system. Alabama provides for such coordination:

Any such city may, by and through its park and recreation board, join or cooperate with one or more other municipalities having like powers, or with boards of education in providing, establishing and conducting parks, playgrounds, recreation centers and other recreational facilities and activities.²

The above not only provides for school-municipal cooperation but also authorizes the development of city-county recreation systems.

² *State Enabling Legislation for Local Recreation*. Washington, D. C.: Works Progress Administration, Technical Series, Recreation Circular No. 3, November 26, 1937, p. 39.

The history of public recreation in America reveals that individuals and groups in a community have had significant influence upon its establishment. Original recreation services have developed more as a result of the people's demands than as an outcome of realization by municipal or school authorities of the need for organized public recreation opportunities. Some states, significantly enough, have seen fit to include in their recreation enabling legislation provision for petitions by the people for the establishment of a recreation service. Florida, for example, includes in its recreation enabling act of June, 1925, the provision that:

Wherein a petition signed by at least five (5) per cent of the qualified and registered voters in such municipality or county requesting the governing body of such municipality or county to provide, establish, maintain and conduct a supervised recreation system and to levy an annual tax for the conduct and maintenance thereof of not less than one-half of one mill nor more than one mill on each dollar of assessed valuation of all taxable property within the corporate limits or boundaries of such municipality or county it shall be the duty of the governing body of such municipality or county to cause the question of the establishment, maintenance and conduct of such supervised recreation system to be submitted to the qualified voters who are free holders to be voted upon at the next general election of such municipality or county; provided, however, that such question shall not be voted upon at the next general or special election unless such petition shall have been filed at least thirty days prior to the date of such election.³

The Florida law further provides that upon adoption of such a proposition by a majority vote, the governing body of the municipality or county must set up and maintain a supervised recreation system.

Special boards created for the sole purpose of recreation management are an effective and popular form of administration in many localities. The Utah recreation enabling act provides for the creation of a recreation board where such a recreation authority is desired:

Authority to supervise and maintain any of such recreational facilities and activities may be vested in any existing body or

³ *Ibid.*, p. A 6.

board, or in a public recreation board, as the governing body of any city, town, county or school district may determine. If it is determined that such powers are to be exercised by a public recreation board—such board may be established in any city, town, county or school district and shall possess all the powers and be subject to all the responsibilities of the respective local authorities under this charter.⁴

Indiana has several recreation enabling acts, including an act adopted in 1947 authorizing county governmental bodies to establish and operate recreation programs. An Indiana law passed in 1923 places legal responsibility for administering recreation in first and second class cities on the local park board. In 1945 eleven acts affecting recreation directly or indirectly were adopted by the Indiana legislature. Among them were:

1. An act to provide for levying a one mill tax on assessed valuations in cities of fourth and fifth class and incorporated towns and school townships to establish recreation centers for youth. The act also provides for boards of control to supervise activities of the centers. (This act was repeated in 1947.)
2. A general broad law authorizing school districts to levy a one mill tax to establish recreation programs
3. An act calling for a general tax providing for a system of forests throughout the state
4. An act setting up a plan for the development of a state park within thirty-five miles of every community in the state

In 1947 the North Carolina legislature passed more than a score of bills relating to local recreation. Five of them authorized certain cities to establish a system of parking meters and to use the proceeds from same for the maintenance and operation of recreation facilities. Five others were related to county or city-county war memorials commissions. Seven referred to local elections to establish a special tax for recreation or to establish a recreation authority. Three related to local means of designating certain funds for recreation. Each of the bills referred to authorization of a certain town or city to take action in recreation. Many of the laws, however, were unnecessary because the 1945

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. A 10.

North Carolina recreation enabling law provides for broad local authority.

State enabling laws in recreation should provide for the widest possible choices on the part of local communities in methods of establishing and maintaining public recreation opportunities. Provisions which hamper the orderly development of recreation systems should be avoided. An example is the Ohio stipulation that cities which have special recreation tax levies must resubmit them each five years to a vote of the people.

State recreation enabling legislation is basically for the purpose of insuring that local government agencies are empowered to carry on special and/or general functions of a recreation character. It, therefore, is not concerned with the programs of private and voluntary recreation or group-work agencies. In general the only references to private persons or organizations found in state recreation enabling laws refer to the authority of local government bodies to utilize private property for public recreation with consent of the owner and to their authority to accept gifts, legacies and bequests from private sources. Some states, however, such as Illinois, have laws providing for the development of parks under private auspices for public use. It is interesting to note that in 1945 the Minnesota recreation law was amended to include alongside local governmental bodies "any incorporated post of the American Legion or any other incorporated veterans' organization," as being authorized to "operate a program of public recreation and playgrounds; acquire, equip, and maintain land, buildings, or other recreational facilities and expend funds for the operation of such program," and authorized to "operate such a program independently, or they may cooperate in its conduct in any manner in which they may mutually agree; or they may delegate the operation of the program to a recreation board created by one or more of them, and appropriate money voted for this purpose to such a board."

The inclusion of veterans' organizations in the recreation enabling law is both needless and controversial. The veterans' groups are given no authority that they do not now possess and that is not also possessed by all civic organizations. To specifically name but one of many types of civic organizations without including them all is to exclude rather than include, an error that often

leads to disorganization within a community. Furthermore, it is doubtful that the state could legally designate any private group as being authorized to spend local public funds.

LOCAL GOVERNMENTAL STRUCTURE AND RECREATION SERVICES

The majority of communities in America feel the influence of several types of government. In addition to federal and state prerogatives the county, township (in sixteen states) and municipal government have an effect upon the affairs of the community. So do special districts, usually for public education purposes. Some special fire, police, airport, sewage, water and park and recreation districts also exist. As there are no federal influences on local recreation of a regulatory nature, attention can be turned to a consideration of state and local governmental factors that condition the organization, administration and finance of local public recreation.

Cities

Advantages and disadvantages inherent in the various forms of local recreation organization are conditioned by the characteristics and customs of the community to which they are applied. Structure and power of local government are two of the factors that affect the form and effectiveness of the recreation authority. The municipality derives its powers from the state. In determining the functions and powers of local governmental administration, the states vary from granting complete self-government, that is, home rule, to complete dominance by the state legislative body. Sixteen states now provide home rule government, and one-third of the cities over 50,000 have home rule charters. Missouri (1875) was the first state to adopt home rule. The home rule charter is a democratic provision and as such results in a variety of local governmental structures. The three major forms are mayor-council, council-manager, and commission.

In some states the form of local government in general is uniform throughout, varying only where the municipality has been granted a home rule charter or special powers by special act of the legislature. Special acts may apply to only one city or to a class

or classes of cities. Most home rule states provide that cities, towns and villages can exercise an option as to which of the three general types of local government they want. The mayor-council form has been most widely adopted. Of the two other general forms the council-manager plan is the more popular.

In 2,033 cities of five thousand or more population the mayor-council form is to be found in 62.3 percent; the council-manager plan in 17.7; and the commission form in 16. The town meeting plan of local government is to be found in four percent of the 2,033 cities and exists only in certain New England states. Under this plan legislative power is in the hands of the citizens while administrative authority is vested in an elected board of selectmen. The centralized control plan, or responsible executive form of government, represented by the city-manager, commission and strong-mayor plans, began to appear about 1910. As of January, 1948, there were eight hundred city manager governed cities, an increase of ten percent over 1947.

Non-salaried boards composed of citizens appointed by the mayor with the consent of the council to handle the policy making and management of essential public services such as libraries, utilities and recreation, are more prevalent in mayor-council forms of local government than in commission or council-manager municipalities. The strong or responsible mayor plan is less in favor of citizen boards than the weak mayor plan. The chief difference between the two is that under the former the mayor has much broader powers and is the municipality's chief executive in fact as well as in name, with the power to appoint heads of the various municipal departments as well as to present an annual budget. The council, however, under this plan usually has the right of approval of the mayor's appointments, the right to vote on fund appropriations and certain powers of investigation. It is responsible for legislation rather than for both legislative and executive functions as is the case under the weak mayor-council plan. Advocates of the strong mayor-council form of municipal government contend that more efficient administration is possible through centralizing responsibility. The large amount of detail work handled by the standing committees of the council under the weak mayor-council form is removed from the hands of the council members and delegated to the various departments whose

heads are appointed by the mayor. The city manager plan and the commission form of local government do not, in general, favor legal or advisory boards. As he discusses the attitudes of various forms of local government administration toward citizen boards, Weir states:

Municipal reforming experts in their efforts to centralize authority fail to distinguish differences in the quality and character of various services in municipal government. The general idea back of efforts is to pattern municipal government after big business organization, this especially being true in the commission, the city manager, and the strong mayor forms of government.

This is a fundamental mistake, in my judgment. Municipal government is not a big business. It is an agency for serving the needs of the people in manifold ways. While the affairs of government should be handled from the monetary standpoint with a view of securing a dollar's worth of service for every dollar expended, municipal government is a series of services to the people and not a business establishment in the larger sense. While some fields of governmental service may properly be organized along lines of big business organization such as public works, public safety, finance, public utilities, etc., there are other fields of service which are more likely to be better served through the active participation of non-salaried citizens grouped into governing boards or commissions. These are education, public library service, city planning, civil service, public health, and particularly parks and recreation. These have to do with the mental and cultural, the health and physical development of the people, the moral and civic training in citizenship of the people, the maintenance of standards of qualification and tenure of office of the public servants (civil service), and the creation of the best possible plan of living and working conditions in the material framework of the city (city planning commission). No matter how well trained, no matter how broad his culture and vision or how great his executive ability may be, it is neither wise nor safe to entrust these fundamental services of education, recreation, etc., to the control of a single executive. This is often especially unfortunate when this executive is subject to frequent changes by reason of partisan politics.⁵

⁵ *Public Recreation In Duluth, Minnesota*. Duluth: Board of Education. July, 1946, p. 72. (Mimeographed)

The placing of the power to legislate and execute in the same person narrows the concept of representative government. Weir points out that some commission governed cities such as Omaha, Nebraska, and Des Moines, Iowa, favor citizen boards for parks and recreation and that city manager governed municipalities such as Fort Worth and Dallas, Texas, Oakland, California, and Cincinnati, Ohio, have retained citizen boards for recreation, libraries and education.⁶ Indications are that the people's desire to place recreation in the hands of a citizen board is accountable for the increase of recreation commissions even in city-manager and commission governed localities.

In some cities several public agencies provide recreation services of a major character. Confusion, inefficient use of public funds, gaps in recreation program services and needless duplication of effort often result. A midwestern city of 25,000 population has a recreation board, composed of members of the city council, school board and citizens; a city council recreation committee; a park board; and a library board charged with the control of a large recreation center, having no relationship to library services. Each of the units has a separate budget and administrative body for the recreation services it offers to the people of the community. Although the recreation board, youngest of them all, was created to administer the public recreation service, it is greatly handicapped in so doing by the retention of separate budgets and powers on the part of the older members of the municipal family.

The park board, a familiar unit of local governmental structure, has a long history. Most often composed of citizen members its original purpose was to beautify and safeguard the open spaces and public squares owned or acquired by the municipality. The tendency today is to consolidate park and recreation services especially in middle size and small communities, for the parks exist for the recreation of the people. The park and/or recreation board and the schools are the local public agencies fundamentally concerned with recreation. Community-wide recreation services can be most effective when the park and recreation boards and the schools enter a cooperative or legal partnership to provide a recreation program based on their available resources and joint planning. Adoption of a public recreation board or commission

⁶ *Ibid.*

composed of city and school representatives and citizens is a sound procedure for the management of public recreation. In cities where the service is administered by a municipal department, the non-salaried board of citizens is also to be recommended. Many arguments have been advanced for and against boards in public affairs.

Advantages of a board:

1. It provides an opportunity for people to become actively represented in the affairs of the community.
2. It provides the public official in charge of a governmental function with the counsel of laymen.
3. It provides an opportunity for more than one mind to be concentrated on major problems.
4. It is less subject to political influences than a single executive.
5. It represents many views in the community.

Disadvantages of a board:

1. It cannot act as quickly as a single executive.
2. It may include members who do not take their responsibilities seriously.
3. It may tend to follow the course set by the executive with little independent thinking.

Counties and Townships

The county, although it usually contains one or more cities, is the general form of rural government in America. Its boundaries have been fixed by the state and it in effect is an instrument of the state. It has police powers, courts of law and other powers not enjoyed by the township. The county has the most direct effect of a legal or governmental nature upon the rural community. The county is governed by some type of county board; the method of election, number of members and terms of office vary widely in the several states. It also has numerous public officials, such as county attorney, sheriff, register of deeds, surveyor and treasurer, who usually are elected by the people. Twelve counties of a total of 3,050 in the United States are governed

by the county manager form of administration. The majority is in Virginia where several city and county governments are merged.

A number of states have one hundred or more county governments and Texas has 254. Counties vary greatly in size. Arlington County, Virginia, has twenty-five square miles, while San Bernardino County, California, has over twenty thousand square miles. Population varies like size, with Loving County, Texas, having less than three hundred people and Cook County, Illinois, more than four million. Such variations tend to handicap good county administration. County governments in 1947 spent in total approximately \$1,700,000,000.

The township, a unit within the county, exists in sixteen states. This branch of state government is closer to the people psychologically than the county government. The trend has been for the county to take over many of the functions previously exercised by the township, particularly education, health, welfare and roads.

General recreation enabling acts of a broad nature include authorization for the county to establish and maintain a public recreation service by itself or in cooperation with school districts or municipalities. Such authorization is expedient for three reasons:

1. Rural communities, components of the county, cannot support individual recreation systems. They need to share in the general service provided by the larger governmental unit.
2. Certain specialized recreation facilities, such as swimming pools, can best be maintained in larger centers of population (cities) in the county and utilized by rural residents as well as city dwellers.
3. County school districts possess facilities that can be adapted for recreation purposes. Furthermore, the school is a rural center.

Only a few good county recreation systems operate today. This situation is due to lack of attention by the recreation movement and rural government officials to the recreation needs of rural people, lack of organized demand among rural people, and absence in some states of adequate county recreation enabling

legislation. The Agricultural Extension Service has done much through its county agents and 4-H Club program, but its efforts have not had any appreciable influence upon establishing recreation as a permanent county-wide service supported by local tax funds. Increasing interest, however, is evident in county recreation. The National Recreation Association, for example, recently identified 233 counties which have designated an administrative authority for recreation and/or parks.⁷ Approximately two-thirds of the counties were concerned primarily with park service. In 41.6 percent of the counties an authority such as a park commission or board of road commissioners was designated as the county park administration. In 27.4 percent of the cases the county government body itself directly administered the park service, while in 15.5 percent of the 233 counties recreation was recognized as a separate function, and a distinct authority was established to administer it. The remaining 15.5 percent of the counties accounted for a variety of miscellaneous plans of administration one of which was the special recreation and/or park district.

The Westchester County, New York, Recreation Commission is a good example of a county-wide recreation service coordinated with many community recreation agencies throughout the county. This county with a population of 573,500 expended in 1946 \$341,911 from tax funds, fees, and charges. The county and its several cities employed 135 paid recreation leaders and utilized the services of 421 volunteers. The county maintained and operated one large recreation center, a public auditorium in the center of the county. The Commission cooperates with government departments and civic organizations as well as with local public recreation agencies and public schools. It works with more than fifty towns and villages in Westchester County of which over two-thirds have organized recreation departments. The Commission's activities are grouped in four main categories: general field service to local communities, programs operated by its activity departments, county center program, and programs conducted through cooperating and affiliated recreation organizations and groups. The field service provides guidance in the organization

⁷ *County Recreation*. New York: National Recreation Association, March, 1948. (Mimeographed)

of local recreation commissions, in planning local facilities, in operation of local programs and in conducting leadership training courses. Activity department programs include athletics, arts and crafts, music and drama, and camps and outings. The community center includes a wide variety of recreation and other activities.

Jefferson County, Kentucky, has organized a county-wide recreation system based on state recreation enabling legislation passed in 1924. In 1944 at the instigation of a group of laymen, the leader of which was a clergyman, the fiscal court (county commissioners) by ordinance created a county recreation department. A recreation commission of five members was set up, including school representation. The fiscal court appropriated \$40,000 to finance the initial program. It requested the county school board to approve the ordinance and also to appropriate \$40,000 to the recreation program. The school board agreed. The recreation service is organized by districts with major community centers being established in fourteen localities in 1945, seventeen in 1946 and twenty-four in 1947. The program radiates out from the centers which are located in consolidated school plants well equipped for recreation. The bulk of the leadership is supplied by the county. A local recreation committee must be formed in a community before it is eligible for participation in the county program. The local committee is developed on the principle that a successful recreation service can be achieved only where the community does something for itself. The committee must be a responsible group of at least five people representative of the community. Local funds are matched by the county on a fifty percent basis for recreation programs and services that are not self supporting. For projects such as swimming pools and other major undertakings expected to be self supporting, the county provides eighty percent of the necessary initial funds. The population of the county, exclusive of Louisville, is approximately 80,000 persons most of whom live in unincorporated areas, as there is only one incorporated town in the county besides Louisville. During a survey period of seven months, only four of the twenty-four principals whose school plants are utilized as recreation centers reported damage to school property through

recreation use and the total amount of damages was short of one hundred dollars.

The Milwaukee County park system administers parks in Milwaukee and in the eleven other cities throughout the county. Total park acreage is 5,460 in sixty-eight parks. A seven member commission appointed by the county board administers the system. Eight swimming pools and sixty ice skating rinks are maintained by the county park system. The county does not operate recreation programs but coordinates through its director of recreation park use by agencies utilizing the facilities of the park system. Many parks are located close to high schools and are used frequently for school recreation programs. A permanent camp site is part of the park system. Most of the twelve cities in the county have public recreation departments, but the parks within the cities are controlled by the county. The recreation departments must work with the county to develop a park recreation program.

West Virginia offers two examples of county-wide recreation programs initiated by private groups. In 1944 the Marion County Recreation Committee spent \$6,000 of private funds to employ thirty-six part-time recreation leaders. Services of twenty-five volunteer leaders were utilized. Activities were conducted in eight communities. The Monongalia County Recreation Council in the same year spent \$4,586 of private funds to employ eleven recreation leaders, one full-time, to conduct recreation activities in eight communities. It also utilized fifty-five volunteer leaders. In 1945 the West Virginia legislature passed a recreation enabling law authorizing county courts, boards of education and municipal tax levying bodies to levy taxes to establish and support recreation programs. In 1946 the county programs begun through private efforts developed into public recreation services administered by county recreation commissions.

The Union County, New Jersey, Park Commission in 1946 expended a total of \$325,986 from tax funds, fees, and charges. It employed sixty-nine recreation leaders and utilized the services of 440 volunteers. It maintained eighteen playgrounds under leadership and operated twenty-four outdoor swimming pools. The Commission was an outgrowth of interest in a parkway as a war memorial after 1918. The memorial plan was abandoned,

but a county park system was born. It was created by popular vote in November, 1921. The system now includes over 4,100 acres of land. The recreation department of the Commission conducts an extensive recreation program on this property.

A county recreation system is in its root factor a mutual-aid pact between the county and its communities, organized and unorganized.⁸ The office of the county director ordinarily does not operate recreation programs for the local communities, but assists them to meet their own needs. This type of partnership indicates that the county department should:

1. Assist in the formation of local recreation boards and committees
2. Provide consultant service in all matters relating to the establishment and conduct of a local recreation service
3. Conduct training courses for paid and volunteer leaders
4. Conduct special programs such as county-wide athletic tournaments, drama festivals and holiday celebrations
5. Provide consultant service in community organization for recreation
6. Act as a clearing house for exchange of experiences among communities and for distribution of literature and visual aids
7. Provide technical services related to recreation facilities and areas
8. Provide technical services in the various recreation interests areas

To do its part in an effective county-wide recreation system the local community should:

1. Create a local board or committee to manage recreation
2. Provide for the development and maintenance of basic recreation areas and facilities
3. Provide a major part of the funds necessary for local leadership
4. Develop a good process of community organization for recreation
5. Develop a pattern of recreation opportunities

⁸ Haislet, Edwin L. *Recreation in Minnesota Goes Rural*. St. Paul: Minnesota Youth Conservation Commission, March, 1948. (Mimeographed)

In November, 1946, county extension agents in a midwestern state were polled on their opinions as to how recreation should be administered in counties. The response indicated that most or all of the funds to support a county director of recreation should be forthcoming from the state, and that a separate new recreation department, with an advisory committee, to administer recreation would be preferable to a school controlled plan or a plan whereby the recreation director would be attached to the county agent's office. Replies also indicated that such an administrative plan would best meet the recreation needs of all rural people and would be the one most likely to appeal to county officials. It was felt, however, that the plan calling for the recreation director to be attached to the county agent's office would be the one least affected by political considerations and would be perhaps the one most acceptable to rural community leaders.

Absence of or poorly constructed recreation enabling legislation has a direct effect upon the development of county recreation programs. In Indiana, for example, until 1947 no law allowed the county to levy taxes to support recreation, although the city, school district and township could do so. The Governor's Advisory Committee on Recreation took action to secure legislation that provides for county recreation systems. Indiana rural youth added their support to adequate county legislation as indicated by the following resolution:

In accordance with our broad aims, Education, Recreation and Community Service, be it resolved that the Indiana Rural Youth Conference request state legislation which will provide funds for the leadership and the development of a rural recreation program in all the counties of our state, and that we support such a program as an official community service project of our organization.⁹

Wisconsin laws allow the county to appropriate money for recreation, but the cost to communities within the county must be apportioned a year after the funds have been spent. County governing bodies are reluctant to advance funds under this plan, and as a result county recreation programs are not being de-

⁹ Resolution adopted by the Indiana Rural Youth Convention at Indianapolis, November 13, 1946.

veloped. Steps are being taken by the Wisconsin Recreation Association and the Wisconsin Recreation Council to secure an efficient type of county recreation legislation. The North Dakota legislature passed a broad recreation enabling act in 1947 but declined to permit the establishment of county recreation systems.

City-County Relationships

The problem of city-county relationships is more acute in large metropolitan areas and also more complicated than in less thickly populated localities. A recent study included investigation of city-county recreation problems in metropolitan Los Angeles, which includes over three million people.¹⁰ Within the area are the Los Angeles Municipal Playground and Recreation Department, the Los Angeles Public Schools, the Los Angeles Park Department, the Los Angeles County Park and Recreation Department and recreation systems of other cities. Numerous privately supported local and national agency organizations operate as part of the Welfare Council of Metropolitan Los Angeles. A regional park and recreation authority has been suggested as a means of meeting city and county needs.¹¹ The suggested plan calls for a tax to be levied throughout the region by the proposed authority as a special tax for recreation, and for the return to incorporated cities of one-half of the funds raised within the cities, said money to be earmarked for recreation. One-half of the money raised in unincorporated areas would be expended by the regional authority for local recreation within those areas, and the remaining half would be expended by the authority for regional programs, services and facilities. The plan would tend to equalize the tax burden for recreation. At present the Los Angeles County Department of Parks and Recreation provides recreation in unincorporated areas out of general county tax receipts, seventy-five percent of which are contributed by the cities, with Los Angeles alone accounting for approximately fifty-five percent. The cities thus are taxed for their own recreation programs and for approximately seventy-five percent of local recreation provided by the

¹⁰ *Recreation for Everybody*, Volume I. Los Angeles: Welfare Conference of Metropolitan Los Angeles, 1946.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 27.

county for unincorporated areas. Since the Los Angeles study was completed the park system and the recreation department of the city have been consolidated into a Department of Recreation and Parks.

In some states small towns and villages in counties containing a large city are agitating for secession from their present county plan in order to establish a new county exclusive of the large city. The city would then become a city-county government unit like Baltimore, San Francisco or St. Louis. Some state constitutions provide for acts of the legislature to organize any city into a separate county when it has attained a certain population without reference to geographical extent, if a majority of the electors in the county in which such city is situated, voting thereon, are in favor of such an organization. Where such action is taken the small towns, villages and rural areas of the county stand to lose for they no longer can depend on taxpayers in the large city for a share of county upkeep. Ordinarily the large city taxpayer pays by far the majority of the total county tax. Rather than secession, a better solution would be recognition of the metropolitan character of the whole county and of the need for over-all government. This would mean the consolidation of essential services such as police, health and welfare, roads, libraries, fire protection, public works and recreation. Some legislatures have considered the desirability of legislation to establish county or multi-county government services like health, with existing municipal health units being blanketed into the system; to allow municipalities to annex unincorporated territory without approval of residents of the area; and to permit county governments to enforce advisable services on any unincorporated township and to tax the township for the services.

Experimental programs in intergovernmental relations operate in five different states. They are supported by grants from the Spelman Fund of the Rockefeller Foundation and are designed to develop efforts to improve public administration. Three counties—Blue Earth, Minnesota; Cloquitt, Georgia; and Henry, Indiana—launched the experiment in 1944 and two others have since been added. The outcomes of these demonstrations which include federal, state and local intergovernmental relations will serve to provide data for more efficient city-county relationships.

School Districts

School districts within a given state may have uniform powers which are specifically outlined in the public school laws of the state, or there may be differentiations in their authority depending upon their classification. In addition they are further affected by regulations of state departments of public instruction laid down by the respective departments as a result of jurisdictions included in various legislation affecting local school district administration and finance. An illustration of such influences as they relate to recreation is afforded by a comparison of powers granted to school districts in Minnesota for school purposes and those granted by the 1937 recreation law for recreation.

RECREATION LAW AND SCHOOL LAW ¹²

As Applied to School Districts

A Comparison of Powers and Procedures

<i>Type of Power That May Be Exercised</i>	AUTHORITY OF SCHOOL DISTRICT OR SCHOOL BOARD	
	<i>For School Purposes</i>	<i>For Recreation</i>
Acquisition of land.	Must be authorized by vote of electors.	Board may purchase without vote of electors if funds are available.
Erection or purchase of buildings.	Must be authorized by vote of electors.	Board may erect without vote of people if funds are available.
Issuance of bonds.	Majority vote of electors.	Majority vote of electors.
Joint ownership with public body of lands or buildings.	No joint ownership. Lease permissible.	Joint ownership of recreation facilities if authorized by vote of electors.
Use of school facilities by community.	School board has full control.	Board may permit use if it does not interfere with school activities.
Purchase of equipment.	Board may purchase equipment for regularly organized courses.	May purchase needed equipment including such items as band uniforms.

¹² Code IX—B—113. St. Paul: Minnesota State Department of Education.

<i>Type of Power That May Be Exercised</i>	AUTHORITY OF SCHOOL DISTRICT OR SCHOOL BOARD	
	<i>For School Purposes</i>	<i>For Recreation</i>
Transportation of pupils.	To or from school. Not for extra-curricular activities. No provision for transportation outside district or high school area.	May transport such groups as bands to other cities as part of recreation program.
Transportation other than pupils.	Can transport pupils only.	Can transport recreational groups. No age limit.
Qualifications of "instructors" and teachers.	Must have training prescribed by law for teachers. State Board of Education decides in some cases.	Must meet qualifications established by State Board of Education, if school funds or facilities are used.
Contracts with "instructors" and teachers.	Continuing contract. Contract not legal unless in writing.	No definite provision. No legal decisions—needs clarification.
Length of program.	School term limited to ten (10) months.	Recreation program may be operated twelve (12) months.
Manual or course of study.	Prescribed by State Board of Education.	Prescribed by State Board of Education if school funds or facilities are used.
Delegation of power.	To employees only.	To another board on vote of electors.
Cooperative control.	No joint control permissible.	Permitted on vote of electors.
Conduct of vote of electors (if required).	May vote on any issue at annual or special meeting if properly called.	May vote on any issue at annual or special meeting if properly called.
Expenditures for maintenance of program.	School board determines budget.	School board determines budget.
Contribution of funds.	No contribution of funds to another agency.	To recreation board on vote of people.
Power of taxation.	Board of independent district makes school levy.	Included in school levy.
Use of state school funds.	Districts entitled to supplemental aid are reimbursed for part of school maintenance cost.	Separate recreation fund should be established. No reimbursement from state.

Other provisions of the Minnesota School Laws state that the school board in any city or village may purchase the remainder of the block on which the schoolhouse is located without vote of the people, and that acquisition of land for athletic field improvement cannot be financed from school bond issues. Types of school districts in various states also have an influence upon the place of the schools in community organization for recreation. Minnesota has these distinct types of school districts: independent, common, special, county, unorganized territory, township, and joint.

In some states school districts possess powers relating to recreation under laws other than specific recreation legislation. For example, school laws may allow the board of education to permit the use of school facilities for purposes other than education during the hours they are not in use for the compulsory educational program. Certain states, such as Tennessee and Wisconsin, exhibit a closer association between school and municipal government than do others. In these two states the municipality owns title to school lands and buildings. In the latter state the lands and properties revert to the municipal corporation when no longer used for school purposes, and financial support of the schools is furnished partly by the municipal government.

Where the boundaries of a school district are not contiguous with those of a municipal corporation a difficulty may arise in the financing of a joint school-city recreation authority. School voters outside the boundaries of the municipality may object to being financially assessed to support a service that does not include them. An arrangement that provides at least a minimum local service to the people in the school district territory outside the municipal limits; permission for them to use the major specialized facilities such as swimming pools, golf courses and gymnasiums usually located in the municipality; and inclusion in organized recreation opportunities such as athletic leagues will go far toward eliminating any objections that might be raised.

The Minnesota recreation law is not typical of most broad general enabling recreation acts because it reserves to the state department of education authority to set the qualifications of recreation leaders whenever school funds or properties are utilized in the recreation program, and because it requires a favorable decision of the school voters before the school district can enter

into any legal partnership with any other local government body to operate a recreation service. Certainly adequate training and other qualifications are important considerations relating to selection of recreation leaders, but certification requirements must be carefully formulated and the place of the school in recreation is but one of the considerations involved. The provision in the Minnesota law basing the powers of local school boards to enter into joint recreation operations with other local public bodies upon a favorable verdict of the school voters appears to be undesirable, although some will hold the provision to be thoroughly in keeping with democratic procedure. Necessity for submitting this question to the voters has been put forward by some school boards not sympathetic to recreation as an excuse for their reluctance to discharge their responsibilities in community recreation. The type of general recreation enabling legislation, however, that authorizes school boards as well as other municipal governing bodies to enter into joint legal agreements without necessitating a vote of the people is more common. Two of the best known school-sponsored public recreation programs are those of Newark, New Jersey, and Milwaukee. Wisconsin is an example of a state in which the majority of recreation programs were originally administered by school authorities. State recreation enabling legislation dating back to 1910 is largely responsible for this development. In recent years recreation commissions and other forms of administration have gained in popularity over school boards as local public recreation authorities in Wisconsin. West Allis, Wisconsin, like Los Angeles is one of the few cities in the country where schools are regularly open on Sundays for community recreation.

Special Recreation and Park Districts

California provides a good example of special districts created to administer parks or recreation or both. In some other states, special recreation districts are permissible, in effect, under the general recreation enabling act for local recreation. That is, where the state law provides for city councils, school districts, village boards or county governing bodies to establish and operate recreation systems individually or through joint cooperation of

two or more such groups, it allows for the development of special recreation districts not confined to the corporate limits of one governing body.

The Public Resources Code of California permits the formation of four types of recreation districts:¹⁸

1. Recreation park and parkway districts
2. County recreation districts
3. Regional park districts
4. Park, recreation and parkway districts

An example of a special recreation district organized under the public resources code is that centering around Hayward, California. The Hayward Area Park, Recreation and Parkway District of Alameda County was organized in 1945. It originated through a request of the incorporated community of Hayward to the county board of supervisors that a proposal of a Hayward Park, Recreation and Parkway District be submitted to the voters at a regular election. The area included the boundaries of the Hayward Union High School District which comprises the town of Hayward, and fifteen unincorporated communities with a total population of fifty thousand. Hayward has a population of eight thousand. The assessed valuation of the total area is \$32,000,000. The recreation tax levy—two and one-tenth mills—realizes at present an annual budget of approximately \$60,000. The majority of recreation programs in the area utilize school facilities. The District has agreements with the various school boards for the use of school areas and facilities.

Illinois laws allow for the creation of special park districts, of which there are over ninety in the state. Prior to the consolidation of park districts in Chicago into the Chicago Park District there were twenty-two separate districts in the city. The park district usually begins as a contiguous territory with the city boundaries or perhaps it may be only part of the city, and in each case adjacent territory may be included. To add new areas to an existing park district a majority of those voting on the proposal must be in favor of it in both the territory to be annexed

¹⁸ *Public Resources Code State of California*. Sacramento: State Superintendent of Documents, 1941.

and in the existing park district. A petition signed by one hundred adult citizens of an area wishing to join a park district, or desirous of creating their own, and presented to the county court begins the process. The court sets the boundaries of the proposed district and the issue is decided at either a special or general election. Park board members are elected by popular vote except in Chicago where they are appointed by the mayor. The trend in Illinois is toward the development of park and recreation boards as local public recreation authorities, and much emphasis is being placed on recreation in park districts. The Chicago Park District was established by an act on the Illinois legislature adopted by a referendum of the Chicago voters on April 10, 1934.¹⁴ The mayor of the city on May 1, 1934, appointed the first board of park commissioners consisting of five members. Prior to the creation of the District, each of the twenty-two separate park districts had independent taxing powers and control of parks and boulevards in their respective territories. The District is independent of the municipal government of Chicago, except for power of appointment of park commissioners which is vested in the mayor, with approval of the city council.

Other examples of special park or recreation districts are found in Massachusetts, Michigan, Ohio and Washington.

THE RECREATION AUTHORITY AND COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

Community recreation and public recreation are not one and the same. As previously indicated all leisure opportunities provided by private agencies, voluntary groups and commercial interests, together with recreation programs maintained by the local public authority charged with the responsibility for the major public recreation service, and recreation offerings of other public agencies constitute community recreation. The nucleus of community recreation, however, should be a publicly supported system of leisure-time opportunities. Extensive and effective relationships with all groups and organizations active in community recreation must be established and maintained by the public recreation department. It must lend its support and good will to all of them,

¹⁴ *Third Annual Report, Chicago Park District, 1937*, p. 7.

and in turn must encourage or sponsor a means of securing their support and the support of all other community groups for the recreation department itself. Some of the many ways in which the department may seek to accomplish these objectives follow:

1. Organization of an advisory community recreation council (Discussed in Chapter IV)
2. Participation of the public recreation executive in a co-ordinating body composed of public and private recreation agency representatives
3. Organization of leadership training programs and recreation conferences for representatives of social, civic and religious groups, and participation in training courses and conferences
4. Development of a recreation consultant service whereby members of the public recreation department are made available as counsellors to community groups and organizations
5. Provision for private and voluntary groups and organizations to utilize facilities of the public recreation department
6. Cooperation with commercial recreation interests to develop opportunities for bowling, horseback riding and other activities which may not be financially feasible for the public recreation department to maintain
7. Participation in community efforts to better conditions in areas of community life other than recreation including such fields as housing, education, youth services and public health
8. Encouragement of the active support and participation of community groups in conducting community-wide programs such as Halloween celebrations and holiday observations

The spirit of American democracy is to develop private initiative. The public recreation board and administrator, therefore, can engage in no higher form of activity than to give attention to multiplying self-directed groups and private and voluntary recreation organizations. Community-minded public recreation administrations fully encourage and assist the formation of drama societies, Boy Scout groups and similar endeavors which later become established in their own right as parts of the community's recreation resources.

THE PUBLIC RECREATION AUTHORITY

As this is not a treatise on the administration of public recreation it will suffice to discuss only briefly here the major factors related to internal operations of the recreation authority. The healthy condition of the public recreation department will mean much to the success of the process of community organization for recreation. A sound basic declaration of legal responsibility, of administrative powers and of financial support for recreation contained in the city charter, a city ordinance or official act of the county governing body or school district or other local government body—is of first importance. It is accompanied by several other considerations including relationships between the recreation board and the recreation executive, leadership, facilities and program.

Legal Provision

There are many types of city charter and ordinance provisions for local public recreation departments. Those containing limitations and restrictions that are potential obstacles to efficient operation of a public recreation service as the years bring new needs and new problems should be avoided. Where they already exist they should be revised, which procedure may often be slow and laborious. Each recreation ordinance, of course, is framed in accordance with local customs and is affected by the extent of general powers granted by the states to the local government agencies involved and by provisions of existing state recreation enabling legislation. A good recreation ordinance should indicate:

1. The department or special commission responsible for the administration of public recreation
2. The constitution of the board, if one is called for,—the terms of office, the stipulation that members are to serve without pay
3. The authority to:
 - a. Adopt policies regarding the operation of the public recreation service
 - b. Employ a recreation executive and any other personnel deemed necessary

- c. Receive funds from gifts, bequests and from public agencies
 - d. Maintain and operate all types of recreation areas and facilities and use private property with consent of the owner
 - e. Levy fees and charges
 - f. Operate a community-wide recreation program including activities of all types
4. The financing of the recreation department—special tax levy, general appropriations from public bodies or other means
 5. The authority to cooperate with public and private groups and organizations in the community
 6. The department's responsibility to submit an annual report of its stewardship to the city council and other public bodies and to include recommendations for improvement of recreation services and properties

Financial Support

Financial support for local public recreation may be forthcoming from one or more of several sources. The common sources are:

1. Appropriation from the city council or county board
2. Appropriation from the school district
3. Special tax levy
4. Funds derived from fees and charges
5. Funds derived from legacies, devises, bequests, gifts and foundations
6. Self-supporting activities

In some states the local governmental bodies have the legal right to use one or the other of the above methods, or several of them. For example, cities under home rule charters can make direct appropriations, while other cities under special acts may be empowered to levy a special tax for recreation. In general most cities are empowered to levy fees and charges for certain recreation services, conduct self-supporting programs and accept gifts, legacies and bequests. In some city charters which include a special millage tax for the support of recreation there is an additional provision to the effect that the city governing body

may make supplemental appropriations from the general fund if the recreation tax does not produce sufficient revenue. Cities that have a per capita limitation on expenditures find themselves financially embarrassed particularly during the years between the federal census counts. Some of these cities have increased their total revenue each year by basing their per capita expenditures on an arbitrary estimate of a certain percentage increase in population each year over the population count of the most recent federal census, only to find when the next census count is revealed that the estimated increases have not in fact materialized. Consequently they have been spending more than the legal limit and therefore must drastically curtail future expenditures.

The partial financing of recreation services from fees and charges has been a time-honored practice in municipal recreation. Such revenues may produce a range of from three to thirty or more percent of recreation expenditures. In fourteen urban areas in 1944 payments by persons participating in activities of public recreation departments amounted to 17.9 percent of total income.¹⁵ Invariably, however, where a large portion of the recreation budget is so derived, there is neglect of adequate recreation opportunities for children and for those low in the economic scale who cannot repeatedly afford the fees and charges levied.

The increasing demand by municipalities and counties to secure from state legislatures greater latitude in establishing new local taxes or other sources of revenue and the movement on the part of the state bodies to grant some of these requests are not to be overlooked as feasible means of supporting local recreation. The use of revenue from parking meters in North Carolina and the earmarking of cigaret and liquor tax revenues in certain Minnesota communities are examples. Income from public ownership of local utilities is also a source of financial support not to be disregarded. State funds to assist in financing local recreation are beginning to appear and in 1946 such funds were significant factors in support of recreation in communities in Washington, Pennsylvania and New York State. The future will bring increased importance to state aid of this type, particularly in the support of county recreation programs.

¹⁵ *Expenditures for Community Health and Welfare 1944 Figures, 1944*, p. 8.

Leadership

Relationships between the recreation board and the recreation executive must be based upon respect for the prerogatives of each other and upon a feeling of joint participation in a field of social serviceship. The board should legislate and the administrator should execute. It is the responsibility of the administrator, however, to provide board members with professional counsel to aid them in arriving at fair and reasonable decisions and statements of policy. Interference by board members in administrative duties that are the work of the executive or intrusion into the area of policy-making by the executive when not authorized to do so by the board, are certain means of attaining disunity and eventual conflict.

Leadership is the factor that gives life to a recreation service. It makes meaningful all the other provisions of a good recreation service, i.e., administrative authority, finance, facilities, program and community relationships. The National Recreation Association in its publication, *Recreation Leadership Standards*, lists the following specific positions in the field of public recreation:

Superintendent	Recreation Center Director
Assistant Superintendent	Playfield Director
District Supervisor	Playground Director
Supervisor of Recreation Centers	Assistant Recreation Center Director
Supervisor of Special Facilities	Assistant Playfield Director
Supervisor of Women's and Girls' Activities	Assistant Playground Director
Supervisor of Special Activities	Recreation Leader or Assistant Specialist
Supervisor of Athletics	Camp Director
Supervisor of Music	Golf Course Manager
Supervisor of Drama	Bathing Beach or Swimming Pool Manager
Supervisor of Arts and Crafts	
Supervisor of Nature Activities	

Duties, special qualifications and education requirements are outlined for each position. Of special note, however, is the following statement as to the qualifications of all positions:

Important as it is to select recreation workers for their technical abilities to organize and direct particular activities, it is more essential to take account of their general qualifications. In the field of leisure-time activity, personality, attitudes, interests, and capabilities are of even greater importance than technical skill in directing activities. No position which involves relationships with people should be filled without careful consideration of the applicant's cultural background and potentialities for growth and development. Sterling character and personal integrity are absolutely essential.¹⁶

Facilities

Facilities utilized by the public recreation authority are basically those owned by the municipal corporation and the school district. Private properties are often used with consent of the owners as locations for programs conducted by public recreation agencies, but such arrangements provide only supplemental facilities and cannot alone meet the need. A public program necessitates publicly owned facilities. In many communities where a joint recreation board or commission is in charge of the public program of recreation it does not own, or sometimes even maintain, the facilities used in its program. In such localities public bodies like the park board, city council, department of public works and school district, retain ownership and maintenance of their respective facilities but make them available to the joint recreation authority. In other cases where recreation is administered by a division of local government such as a recreation department, or a park and recreation department, the department owns and maintains at least the major portion of public recreation facilities. In any case, in order that adequate facilities be available for the recreation program it is essential that the local recreation authority has:

1. Full use of all public properties useful in a community-wide recreation program

¹⁶ *Recreation Leadership Standards*. New York: National Recreation Association, 1948, p. 7.

2. The responsibility for directing joint planning of recreation facility development and for recommending to major local government bodies the acquisition and improvement of properties to meet recreation needs

The National Recreation Association has developed standards for public recreation areas and facilities as a result of many years' study of the problem.¹⁷ They may be summarized as:

1. At least one acre of publicly owned park and recreation space for each one hundred of the local population
2. A neighborhood playground, particularly for small children, within a quarter to a half mile of every home and from three to six acres in size
3. A playfield, particularly for youth and adult use, within a half to a mile of every home on the scale of one acre for each eight hundred persons. The playfield should range from ten to twenty acres in size.
4. A large recreation park within or near the city limits, or more than one depending on the size of the community
5. Specialized facilities including:
 - a. One hole of publicly owned golf for every three thousand persons
 - b. Swimming facilities to serve at least three percent of the population at any one time
 - c. An athletic field and stadium usually as part of the high school campus in small communities
 - d. An outdoor theater accessible to everyone in the community. In a small community the theater could be well located in the large recreation park.
 - e. A baseball diamond for every six thousand persons and a softball diamond for every three thousand
6. A community recreation building or center within a half mile or a mile of every home, with one building for at least every twenty thousand persons
7. A gymnasium for each ten thousand of the population or less

¹⁷ *Standards for Neighborhood Recreation Areas and Facilities*. New York: National Recreation Association, 1944.

8. An auditorium or assembly hall for each twenty thousand or less
9. A social or play room for each ten thousand or less
10. An informal reading or quiet game room for each ten thousand or less
11. An indoor game room for each ten thousand or less
12. A room equipped as an arts and crafts shop for each ten thousand or less
13. A club or multiple-use room for each four thousand or less
14. An indoor swimming pool for each fifty thousand or less

Numerous considerations will affect the application of the above standards to any specific community. Degree of interest in various recreation activities, suitability of facilities for multiple use, adaptation of existing facilities, feasibility of combined education-recreation planning, degree of population density, and the factor of accessibility must be properly surveyed to determine the type, number and location of recreation facilities for the community.

Program

Program offerings developed by the public recreation authority have only one valid basis—the interests and needs of individuals and groups in the community. To be adequate the program of recreation maintained by the local public recreation authority must:

1. Be available on a year-round basis
2. Provide for all age groups, both sexes, all races and creeds, and special groups such as church and industrial organizations
3. Make opportunities and facilities available to all neighborhoods in the city
4. Encourage home recreation as well as support the recreation offerings of private agencies and voluntary groups
5. Include a wide variety of activities in order to appeal to the varied leisure interests of all
6. Encourage development of self-leadership and group leadership

7. Provide for individual differences in levels of skill in recreation pursuits
8. Be flexible enough to accommodate changes of recreation interests
9. Be related to the school program of education for leisure
10. Provide people an opportunity to share in planning activities in which they are going to participate.

In addition to their usual functions in developing and maintaining public recreation programs, some recreation departments are given special powers relating to commercial recreation. The municipal department of recreation in Detroit includes a division of commercial recreation which has authority for approving or disapproving licenses for all types of commercial recreation and entertainment establishments, such as billiard and bowling rooms, dance halls, cabarets, circuses, roller skating rinks, boxing and wrestling shows, theaters and motion picture shows, shooting galleries, amusement parks, exhibition halls, baseball parks and other types of profit making leisure-time establishments. The division is also charged with the responsibility of field investigations to determine whether the municipal laws and the regulations of the recreation department are being observed. Several years ago a plan involving commercial recreation operators was worked out whereby high school students could obtain regular scholastic credit for bowling activities.

LOCAL RECREATION ADMINISTRATION AND THE FUTURE

Much has been said and written with reference to the merits and disadvantages of various patterns of administrative authority for local recreation. A good deal of the discussion has revolved around the plans in existence today with less thought given to the feasibility of a realignment of local governmental functions to include the creation of a special, separate and distinct new arm of government—a recreation authority—to function in recreation as the school board does in education affairs and as the civil city does in municipal affairs. From our past history, our present social and scientific advances and our promised future progress,

it becomes clear that sufficient actual and potential evidence justifies ranking leisure and recreation as primary factors in our way of life. If the internal plan of organization of our public affairs is to provide for recreation a place commensurate with its importance in individual, community, state and national life, there is a need for the development of an over-all recreation authority of a community or district or regional character equipped with fiscal, administrative, and public domain authority.

Under such a plan recreation would be administered as a unique area of community life. The legally constituted authority directed by a non-salaried board of citizens would possess all necessary powers to act for the common good in a public function, comparable in its own right to the powers and duties of the school district and the civil district. The necessity for dependence upon other governmental agencies for part or all of the means to discharge its functions, a traditional characteristic of most recreation administrative plans, would not be basic to this type of recreation authority. This new type of recreation authority would possess the legal authorization to function on a geographical basis of a district or regional character, and would not be limited to the corporate boundaries of a municipality or school district if it could better discharge its functions on a wider geographical basis. It would include responsibility for both recreation and park administration.

A nuclear form of this new recreation authority is already identifiable in some of the existing special recreation and park districts now operating in certain states. Revision of state statutes, and perhaps state constitutions in some instances, would be a necessary prelude to a realization of this type of recreation authority.

In this plan the primary function of the schools in recreation, education for leisure, would remain the duty of the education authority. School properties, however, would be available to the recreation authority. The schools would improve and expand their recreation responsibilities by appointing a Director of Leisure Education who would act as a resource, a consultant and a means of coordinating into effective relationships the school program of training in recreation skills and educating for leisure.

SUGGESTED READINGS Books

- Butler, George. *Introduction to Community Recreation*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1948.
- . *Recreation Areas, Their Design and Equipment*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1947.
- Hjelte, George. *The Administration of Public Recreation*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1940.
- Huus, Randolph. *Financing Municipal Recreation*. Menasha, Wisconsin: George Banta Publishing Co., 1935.
- Kneier, Charles M. *City Government in the United States*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1947.
- McDonald, Austin F. *American City Government and Administration*. New York: Thomas W. Crowell Co., 1946.
- Myer, Harold D. and Brightbill, Charles K. *Community Recreation*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1948.
- Sanderson, Dwight. *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1942.
- , and Paulson, Robert A. *Rural Community Organization*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1939.
- Truxal, A. O. *Outdoor Recreation Legislation and Its Effectiveness*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1929.
- Weir, L. H., Editor. *Parks, A Manual of Municipal and County Parks*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1928. (Two volumes).

ARTICLES

- "A Recreation Board for Washington, D. C." *Recreation*, October, 1942.
- Burnett, L. A. "A Summer Recreation Program for a Small Community." *Recreation*, August, 1943.
- Christiansen, Milo. "Planning for Plans." *Recreation*, June, 1944.
- Dyer, D. B. and Lightig, J. G. "Injury Liability in the Field of Public Recreation." *Park Maintenance*, April, 1948.
- Fitzgerald, Gerald B. "Organizing the Community for Recreation." *Minnesota Municipalities*, April, 1940.
- . "Recreation in Minnesota Communities." *Minnesota Municipalities*, May, 1946.
- Hjelte, George. "Modern Trends in Legislation and Administration." *Parks and Recreation*, November, 1947.
- . "Trends in Municipal Recreation." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1948.

- Hjelte, George. "Research in Recreation." *Research Quarterly*, March, 1939.
- Krieser, Vernon H. "Organizing a Full Time Recreation Program." *Recreation*, August, 1946.
- Leevey, J. Roy. "Recreation in Small Communities." *The American City*, April, 1943.
- "Outline of Procedures for Establishing a Community Recreation Program." *Recreation*, July, 1947.
- Recreation*, May, 1935, whole issue. (Yearbook).
- Recreation*, June, 1947, whole issue. (Yearbook).
- "Rural Aspects." *Recreation*, July, 1947.
- Robertson, R. W. "Oakland's Doing Something About it." *Recreation*, March, 1944.
- Taylor, M. D. "Library's Part in the Recreational Program." *Library Journal*, September 15, 1942.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

- A Guide for Planning Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Physical and Health Education.* Chicago: The Athletic Institute, 1947.
- Adventure in Governmental Gearing.* New Castle, Indiana: Henry County Council on Intergovernmental Relations, 1946.
- A Public Recreation Budget for a City of About 10,000; 25,000; 50,000.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1940.
- Anderson, William. *The Units of Government in the United States.* Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1934.
- Board and Staff Relationships.* New York: American Association for Group Work, 1940.
- County Recreation.* New York: National Recreation Association, March, 1948.
- Davis, Helen E. *The Y.M.C.A. and Public Recreation, Informal Education and Leisure Time Programs.* New York: Association Press, 1946.
- Essentials for Developing Community Recreation.* Chicago: The Athletic Institute, 1946.
- Fees and Charges for Public Recreation.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Interior, National Park Service, Government Printing Office, 1939.
- Getting Started in Community Recreation.* Lansing: Michigan Youth Guidance Commission, 1945.
- Haislet, Edwin L. *Recreation in Minnesota Goes Rural.* St. Paul: Minnesota Youth Conservation Commission, March, 1948.

- Halsey, Elizabeth. *Development of Public Recreation*. Chicago Recreation Commission, 1940.
- Is Park and Recreation Service a Governmental or Proprietary Function of Municipal Government?* New York: National Recreation Association, 1932.
- Municipal and County Parks in the United States*. Washington, D. C.: National Park Service, Government Printing Office, 1935.
- Planning for Recreation Areas and Facilities in Small Towns and Cities*. Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Office of Community War Services, Recreation Division, Government Printing Office, 1945.
- Promoting and Organizing Recreation in Small Communities*. Milwaukee: Wisconsin Recreation Association, December, 1947.
- Public Recreation in Minnesota*. Minneapolis: Minnesota Recreation Association, 1938.
- Public Resources Code, State of California*. Sacramento: State Superintendent of Documents, 1941.
- Recreation—A Major Community Problem*. New York: National Recreation Association, 1940.
- Recreation Comes of Age*. Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Office of Community War Services, Recreation Division, 1944.
- Recreation for Everybody*. Los Angeles: Welfare Council of Metropolitan Los Angeles, 1946. (Two volumes).
- Recreation in Your Community*. St. Paul: American Legion, Department of Minnesota, March, 1946.
- Recreation Leadership Standards*. New York: National Recreation Association, 1948.
- Schedule for the Appraisal of Community Recreation*. New York: National Recreation Association, 1944.
- Scoring Sheet for Community Recreation Appraisal Schedule*. New York: National Recreation Association, 1947.
- State Enabling Legislation for Local Recreation*. Washington, D. C.: Works Progress Administration, Technical Series, Recreation Circular No. 3, November 26, 1937.
- Standards for Neighborhood Recreation Areas and Facilities*. New York: National Recreation Association, 1944.
- Standards of Recreational Facilities*. Seattle: Bureau of Governmental Research and Services, University of Washington, 1947.
- Summer Recreation*. A Report of Community Programs. Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Office of Community War Services, Government Printing Office, 1945.

- The A B C's of Public Relations for Recreation.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1946.
- The Organization of Municipal Recreation Programs.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1938.
- The Small Town Takes A Job.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1947.
- Tolleris, Beatrice. *Annual Reports How to Plan and Write Them.* New York: National Publicity Council for Health and Welfare, 1946.
- Vettiner, Charlie. *A Guide to County Recreation.* Louisville: Jefferson County Recreation Board, 1948.
- Weir, L. H. *The Government of Parks and Recreation in American Cities.* Scottsburg, Indiana: August, 1947.

CHAPTER VIII

The Recreation Survey ~

Determining present status is a logical procedure as a method in community organization. A device commonly used for this purpose is the community survey—essentially an inventory and at the same time an evaluation. The survey, utilized both in general and specific areas of community service, employs the techniques of interrogation, observation, inspection, analysis of documentary data and reports, comparison and evaluation. This educational procedure is designed to bring a fuller realization of the significance of adequate provision for community services for all the people. It provides an opportunity for community participation and cooperative action, and a method of interpretation.

Experience indicates that the survey is a common, practical, and effective device utilized in the organization of new recreation systems and programs and in the improvement of existing ones. It may be related to administration, finance, leadership, facilities and areas, program, community and agency relationships; or, in a comprehensive approach, to all of these. It may be community-wide or confined to specific neighborhoods or regions. It may include the public agencies, the private agencies or both. Its chief value is in relation to recreation planning.

There may be some steps which, obviously, ought to be taken to establish or improve recreation services without recourse to a recreation survey. The many benefits of a survey, however, will not be forthcoming if efforts are limited to desirable procedures easily apparent. Attainment of visible desired goals may depend to a very large extent upon factors which can best be determined by survey methods. This does not preclude efforts to remedy clearly undesirable conditions at the start or during the course of the survey.

A systematic discussion of the recreation survey includes:

1. Purpose and objectives of the survey
2. Types of recreation surveys
3. Scope and content of the survey
4. Planning for the survey
5. Personnel involved in making the survey
6. Organization of procedure
7. Preparation of forms for gathering data
8. Techniques
 - a. Interview
 - b. Observation
 - c. Inspection
 - d. Comparison
 - e. Evaluation
 - f. Analysis of documentary data and reports
 - g. Use of prepared forms
9. The survey as a means of interpretation
10. Organization of the survey report
11. Presenting the survey report
12. Case studies in recreation surveys
13. Trends in surveys

Purpose

Regardless of the stage of development of recreation in the community, the survey is a sound means of gathering evidence upon which to base a plan of action designed to create a type of service that is competent to meet the needs. The purpose of the recreation survey is to analyze the factors, both actual and potential, that affect the community's ability to establish and maintain an optimum recreation service to its people, and furthermore, to recommend a ladder of planned steps reaching toward a realization of that service. The device is not to be applied once, but repeatedly as new social conditions and additional needs indicate. Viewing community life as a progression, as an entity in which any intermediate element is related by uniform law to the other elements, the survey becomes a continuing process to be put to practical use at intervals determined by the extent and

intensity of effects on community life by the changing social scene. Its purpose, therefore, while remaining the same is applied with varying techniques, procedures and outcomes.

Objectives

Objectives of the recreation survey will be determined in their detailed aspects by the specific nature of the survey and the needs which give rise to the necessity for the study. Certain general objectives common to all types of surveys determine:

1. The present status of the subject of the survey
2. Deficiencies that presently exist
3. Needs that are not being satisfied
4. Resources that are available
5. Recommendations for improvement
6. A plan of action outlining steps to be taken in rank order of importance

Unless each of these is adequately considered an incomplete and patchy analysis will result that will in no wise provide a valid and reliable means of attacking the ills besetting the subject at hand. An inter-relationship exists that will escape the surveyors and the people of the community if all objectives are not duly regarded. Incompleteness and disunity must not replace a logical, complete and practical plan which can be assumed where major objectives are carefully considered and faithfully pursued.

Types

Many types of surveys are necessary in recreation. The type to be used will depend upon the degree of development of the recreation service and upon the areas of the service that present the most pressing problems. An exploratory study should be utilized where a recreation system is to be instituted in a community for the first time. It should include an inventory of publicly owned land, buildings and water areas; a listing of public agencies that have or should have a recreation function primary, secondary or incidental; an analysis of state and local legislation that affects the recreation functions of such bodies;

an indication of the attitudes toward participation in a community recreation service by the governing bodies of such agencies; an analysis of permanent and adequate sources of financial support; a study of private agencies performing recreation functions; a sounding of public opinion regarding the proposed new service; an estimate of the amount and type of leadership necessary to inaugurate the recreation system; and finally, a recommended plan of administration based to a large degree upon the above factors. The exploratory survey, not to be underestimated in importance, is a guarantee of a good beginning and will in considerable measure set the basic pattern of responsibility and co-operation of public agencies in a recreation service designed to meet the needs of the community. Its real significance, however, will be realized only when future surveys are undertaken as a means of assuring that the basic plan is functioning efficiently in terms of the people's needs as the years go by.

The second general type of recreation survey is that applied to a recreation department already in operation. Its purpose is not to establish but to improve, although it is conceivable that in some instances improvement can come only through the abandonment of the present plan and initiation of a totally new approach to the community's recreation service. Whereas the exploratory survey is usually sponsored by a public agency board that feels a need for guidance before inaugurating a program or by a lay advisory group interested in obtaining planned leisure-time opportunities for the community, the survey of operating recreation systems is ordinarily requested by the agency which has assumed or been given the major responsibility for the service and wishes in a spirit of self-improvement and advancement to take stock of its progress and efforts with a view to adopting a plan for betterment. On the other hand, such a survey may be encouraged by a group of laymen who are dissatisfied with the type and extent of the recreation service offered by the public body in charge of the program. In this case the desire—improvement—is the same but the motivation is different. Many recreation systems have been revitalized and expanded as a result of the interest of citizens insisting upon an accounting of the nature of the recreation offerings.

Types of recreation surveys applied to systems already in operation include studies of the following factors:

1. Administration
2. Finance
3. Leadership, paid and voluntary
4. Facilities and areas
5. Program offerings
6. Legal aspects
7. Community relationships
8. Leisure interests of various age groups
9. Current uses of leisure time
10. Relationship of public and private agencies
11. Relationship between urban and adjacent suburban and rural localities
12. Relationship of recreation to education, health, welfare and other public services

Other recreation surveys of a specific nature include those applied to private and voluntary agencies, youth recreation, use of areas and facilities, commercial recreation, home and family recreation, industrial recreation, and church recreation.

SURVEY PLANNING

Scope and Content

The scope of the recreation survey will, to a measurable degree, affect the determination of content, organization of planning and selection of personnel necessary to accomplish the purpose. Likewise, certain primary factors influence the scope of the study to be undertaken. To determine scope it is important to answer the following questions:

- Who is to sponsor the work?
- How is the survey to be financed?
- What time limits are involved?
- What are the immediate needs?
- Is a long-range plan desired?
- What are the geographical limitations?
- What is the specific purpose of the survey?

Surveys of a comprehensive scope are in general sponsored by councils of social agencies, public recreation authorities, or lay recreation councils or committees. Councils of social agencies, including as they do both private and public agencies, are interested in a total account of leisure-time resources and opportunities in the community. Because such councils are often county-wide in nature their recreation surveys include more than those sponsored by municipal bodies. Surveys of this type are made either as a part of an over-all community study of health, welfare and recreation or are a separate study of the organized leisure-time aspects of community life. The over-all community study is a logical one to be sponsored by councils of social agencies, because such bodies include organizations and groups active in health, welfare and recreation and because one purpose of the council plan is better coordination of and coverage by agencies performing various social service functions that are akin to one another.

Recent recreation surveys sponsored by councils of social agencies include *Recreation For Everybody*, a recreation study of public and private agencies sponsored by the Welfare Council of Metropolitan Los Angeles. It is described as a master plan of principles to guide the orderly development of recreation facilities. Volume I relates to the characteristics of the city and its environs and to recreation and youth service. It lists recommendations for future planning and points out community organization implications. Volume II describes each of sixty-five geographical sub-areas, their present services and needs. *Community Survey of Health, Welfare and Recreation Agencies* is sponsored by the Evanston, Illinois, Council of Social Agencies. This study includes recreation as part of a total community study of health, welfare, and recreation. *The Waterbury Survey*, a study of the social welfare, recreation and public health program in Waterbury, Connecticut, is sponsored by the Council of Social Agencies. Here again recreation is included as a part of the over-all community survey as is also true of the *Social Survey of Erie, Pennsylvania*, sponsored by the Council of Social Agencies. Not all surveys sponsored by councils of social agencies include public agencies. *A Survey of the Private Recreation and Youth Services*

Agencies of Columbus and Franklin County, sponsored in 1946 by the Columbus, Ohio, Council of Social Agencies, is an example.

Surveys sponsored by public recreation authorities are concerned chiefly with the area of responsibility of such bodies and, therefore, are not so extensive as those undertaken by councils of social agencies. Many, but not all, of the former, however, do include some attention to private and voluntary recreation agencies within their political subdivision area, because of the realization that the community setting of recreation is not complete in the absence of consideration of all groups and agencies which have a recreation function. In many cases two or more public bodies such as city councils, planning commissions, school boards, recreation commissions and park departments, combine to authorize a survey of recreation in geographical and political areas under their jurisdiction.

Recent surveys sponsored by public agencies include: *Recreation Survey and Long-Range Plan* jointly sponsored by the City Council and Recreation Commission of Norfolk, Virginia; *Recreation Long-Range Plan* jointly sponsored by the Planning Commission and School District of Bremerton, Washington; *Public Recreation, Gary, Indiana*, sponsored by the mayor and Park Board at the request of the Mayor's Youth Committee; *Recreation in Austin, Minnesota*, sponsored by the Recreation Commission; *Long-Range Recreation Plan, Baltimore, Maryland*, sponsored by the Commission on City Plan.

Recreation surveys are not limited to towns and cities but can be applied with effectiveness to county, state and national levels. The Los Angeles and Columbus surveys just mentioned are metropolitan area or county studies. A recent example of a state-wide study is the *Recreational and Cultural Resources Survey* of the State of Washington. Two state-wide recreation surveys were made early in 1947 by the Minnesota Governor's Advisory Committee on Recreation. One referred to local recreation areas and facilities and the other to selected items regarding full-time public recreation departments. In 1938 the Works Progress Administration made a nation-wide survey of community recreation programs and in 1940 a national study of the training, experience and duties of W.P.A. recreation leaders. *Expenditures for Community Health and Welfare 1944 Figures*, 1944, and *Public*

Agency-Council Relationships, 1946—studies made by Community Chests and Councils, Incorporated—are examples of studies having a certain national aspect with implications for recreation. Some of the first recreation surveys with a national aspect were those conducted by Perry in 1915, 1917, and 1919, on community recreation centers and the extended use of school buildings.

The contents of the recreation survey are affected by scope and sponsorship; the more agencies and groups involved, the more comprehensive, in general, is the study. A first step is to decide what to include. To determine this is the responsibility of those authorizing the study in consultation with a survey committee appointed from local officials and citizens and in conference with outside experienced survey personnel called in to participate in or conduct the study. Types of recreation surveys previously outlined here provide a guide to the selection and determination of items to be studied. The content must be sufficiently inclusive to provide adequate data regarding the community's needs, for recommendations and a plan of action will depend on the data. A sound procedure in determining content is to analyze surveys that have been made in other communities. Included as part of all recreation surveys should be interpretative and educational material, statements of principles of good recreation practices, recommendations and indications of community organization implications.

Public opinion polls, attitude polls and recreation interests studies may well be part of survey content. They reveal the level of public understanding and the wishes and needs of people with reference to present and potential recreation resources and developments. Many such surveys have been conducted among youth. A number of universities and colleges, hard pressed for adequate recreation facilities and programs because of tremendously expanded student bodies, are making surveys of attitudes and interests to assist in meeting recreation needs. The Washington survey just mentioned included public opinion polls among adults in thirty-eight cities, towns and rural areas conducted by over 350 college students and others. Youth in thirty-one communities were polled with the cooperation of public schools. The polls included opinions on adequacy of local recreation facilities,

need for a community center, types of programs desired, need for trained leadership and need for summer camp opportunities.

The Minnesota Governor's Advisory Committee on Recreation in March, 1948, with the cooperation of the Minnesota Poll, made a survey of the recreation interests of adults in the state and of their opinions regarding the recreation needs of children, young people and adults in their communities. The opinions of youth and of rural community leaders were similarly surveyed. In 1947 the Special Committee on General Recreation of the University of Minnesota interviewed one thousand students with reference to their recreation interests and their opinions regarding the adequacy of campus recreation facilities and opportunities. In early 1948 the International Gallup Poll surveyed the leisure time activities of representative adults in the United States and eight foreign countries and found few differences among their leisure habits.

Planning

Planning for the survey, an essential step, assures efficiency, economy in time, effort and expense, and adequate coverage of supporting data. Recommended procedures in survey planning include:

1. Organization of survey committee
2. Designation of survey director
3. Conference between survey director and sponsoring body
4. Determination of content, available funds and time element
5. Selection of survey staff
6. Publicity plans before, during and following the study
7. Plans for interpretation and educational objectives to be realized during course of survey
8. Plans for post-survey program

Personnel

Personnel involved in making the survey are of three types: community laymen and officials selected to serve on the survey

committee; outside experienced professional personnel; and secretarial and clerical assistants. A well organized survey committee has many advantages, among which are: participation by laymen in the affairs of their community; assurance of close association with the study of public officials in a position to take positive action on recommendations and plans of action resulting from the survey; opportunity for outside professional personnel to be guided in terms of local characteristics and community history; and a means of educating laymen and officials to the significance of recreation in community life. Selection of outside experienced professional personnel to direct the technical work of the recreation survey will assure the community that competence will mark the effort and that special interests will not mar the survey findings or recommendations. The survey committee and the survey director and his staff, if any, should meet regularly and frequently in conference to facilitate progress; to publicize reports at various stages of the work; to receive from each other guidance and information; to determine feasible changes for betterment of the recreation service that can be made during the course of the study; and to develop current plans for educating the community to the importance and significance of the problem at hand.

In large cities where a number of public and private agencies and groups, and neighborhoods, are involved the professional survey staff must necessarily include more than the director. Experts in various areas such as public recreation, private and voluntary agencies, city planning and statistics will be essential. In smaller communities one outside person with the help of the local committee will suffice to produce a creditable job. Communities that wish to undertake recreation surveys will find useful the following sources of experienced professional personnel:

1. National Recreation Association
2. Community Surveys Associates
3. Universities and colleges, especially departments of recreation, extension divisions, schools of social work and departments of physical education
4. State professional recreation societies

Organization Procedures

A certain group of data of a significant and supporting nature exists that must be given consideration as basic to the appraisal of any kind of social service. The data refer to the people to whom the service is provided, their characteristics and customs, and to political, social and economic factors that are part of the community in which they live. Furthermore, recreation, being a basic area of human living, is inextricably associated with other factors that influence and are a part of daily life. To properly assess present opportunities for leisure and to adequately plan for the future it is necessary to consider characteristics and trends of a community and of the people who are part of it. Data relating to population characteristics and trends, school age population, employment, housing, delinquency, economic status, health, political organization and administration, and level of community consciousness are of fundamental concern and should be placed early in the order of procedure.

General growth of the population, analysis by age groups and sex, geographic distribution, and composition by nationality and race can be secured from the figures of the United States census which give detailed data for all cities over one hundred thousand, partially complete information for cities to ten thousand and only total population for communities of less than one thousand. An analysis of the publications of the Bureau of Census as compiled by the Government Printing Office will indicate the information that is readily available. In addition, arrangements can be made to secure from the Bureau answers to detailed questions about any community. Trends in growth and geographical location are some of the more obvious factors that effect park and recreation planning.

Data regarding economic status and businesses are obtainable both from census figures and from local groups, particularly chambers of commerce. Information on schools, libraries and other community institutions may often be obtained from recent studies which may have been made of them in the community. The United States Employment Service state and local offices can supply data on employment. Building trends and housing data

may be secured from the city engineer's office, and juvenile delinquency data from the local police. Information on the form of political organization and administration is available from the city clerk. Newspaper offices, libraries, county historical societies and old settlers are sources of early community origins and growth. An insight into social organization and community consciousness may be secured by listing and analyzing the existing social, civic, religious, labor, education and recreation groups. The city directory provides such a list.

Much factual data from definite sources can be assigned to survey committee members for compilation. The allocation of duties to staff and committee is a point of procedure. Such designation should include a time schedule for completion, analysis and presentation of data. Materials relating to technical aspects of the survey content should be handled by the professional staff. Such data include recreation organization, administration, finance, leadership, facilities and areas, program and agency relationships. Some information may be gathered by the questionnaire method. Organization of procedure should include plans for final compilation and assembly of the survey reports.

Preparation of Forms

Prepared forms will facilitate the gathering of data. They may be used both by the survey staff and the committee. Care must be given in their preparation and instruction in their use. Forms may be utilized in gathering information regarding population characteristics, city administration, physical data, racial organization, social data, economic status and other factors. They may also be applied to the collection of specific recreation data. It is advisable to use both preliminary and final forms. Analysis and interpretation begin when all information is gathered. The use of maps, charts and tables is a sound, useful and necessary procedure for gathering, analyzing and presenting data. Several maps should be available of the city, county and school district. Population, housing, recreation areas and facilities, delinquency and other factors may be thus easily located and their relationships and implications studied.

TECHNIQUES IN MAKING THE SURVEY

Analysis of documentary data will provide much information of value to the recreation survey. Included in this type of material are annual reports, financial records, maps and charts, special reports, proceedings and minutes of meetings, city charters, city ordinances, existing surveys, census statistics, master plans, school records, recreation participation records, constitutions and by-laws and vital statistics. The degree of usefulness of these materials will depend upon the content and specific purposes of the survey and the amount and character of the information contained in the documents. Insofar as feasible certain materials such as annual reports, special reports, existing surveys and master plans should be solicited from all agencies and groups related to supporting data or to specific recreation functions. Careful analysis is necessary to guide the selection of relevant materials. Documentary data will contain facts and figures and consolidated data that the survey staff may have to spend many hours compiling if they fail to first collect and analyze available records.

Interviews are a major technique in survey work. The interviewer must be trained and experienced in this method. Persons to be interviewed include city, school and county officials; public recreation leaders, administrators and board members; social, civic, labor, employer and religious organization representatives; private and voluntary agency staff and board members; laymen; and participants in recreation programs of various agencies and groups. Information to be sought from each of these will be conditioned by the specific information desired. The interviewer should make notes while the interview is in progress and immediately afterwards add his comments, interpretations and reactions.

Observation of recreation program offerings, board meetings, office procedure and administration, in-service training programs, and committee meetings is a necessary step in the survey process. Inspection of present recreation areas and facilities, properties planned for improvement and acquisition, supplies and equipment and office files and records is also essential. A thorough knowledge of the location, type, use and efficiency of areas and facilities is indispensable to proper recommendations for future planning.

Areas of the community not serviced by recreation facilities also must be inspected with a particular view to seeking locations for the erection of needed areas and buildings. All public buildings should be visited that have a potentiality for use in a community recreation service.

Comparison of present findings with any available previous surveys or inventories will reveal what, if any, progress has been accomplished between studies. Comparison should also be made with conditions in other communities of approximately the same size which are known to support a competent recreation program. Adequate allowances should be made, of course, for the characteristics of each community.

Questionnaires may be utilized to a limited extent in conducting the community recreation study. One way is to send a questionnaire to all social, civic, labor, education and religious groups requesting certain information. Upon return of the questionnaire a quick analysis will determine which ones should be made the subject of further inquiry. This procedure applies only to miscellaneous groups that may have an incidental function in recreation and not to those that have or should have a primary or secondary recreation function.

Evaluation of the present recreation service as revealed by the use of the foregoing techniques should be made in terms of accepted standards, recommended standards and research studies. It is the final technique to be applied to reach a series of recommendations. Standards should be applied to the various areas of the content of the survey and shortcomings pointed out. It is essential when using this technique to make full allowance for individual community customs and characteristics. In some instances, for example, the presence of certain facilities may more than compensate for the sub-standard condition of others, depending upon the preferences and needs of the individual locality.

THE SURVEY REPORT

Interpretation

One of the pressing needs of the recreation profession today is better and additional means of interpretation. The recreation

survey offers an additional base for accelerating the solution of this problem. In the first instance, if properly planned, the final survey report will be an interpretative document. The conduct of the survey itself may be so organized and its procedure and progress so publicized that its course will be a further means of educating the community to the importance, place and significance of planned leisure-time opportunities. While the survey is in progress the press and radio should be fully brought into play to interpret the need for and purpose of the study. At the same time survey staff and committee members should appear before social, civic and other groups to explain the undertaking. Personal visits by public officials, press and laymen should be arranged so that deficiencies and needs can be viewed at first hand with accompanying interpretations by the survey staff and committee members. Finally, the survey report itself should be presented in part or total to community groups and made the subject of study clubs and of those groups seeking a subject to which they can attach their interests and efforts related to a desire for community betterment.

Organization

Organization of the survey report is a matter of importance. If it is to fulfill its potentialities as a significant document relating to community welfare the report must be logical, readable, forceful and educational. A good beginning is an introduction which states the purpose of the survey, its scope, contents, sponsorship and the needs which gave rise to it. Acknowledgements should be made to those who contributed in a major way to the completion of the study. A summary of major findings following the introduction will allow for a concise review of the present status without making it necessary to read the total report to secure a knowledge of present efficiencies and deficiencies. Next should follow a summary of major recommendations which will also serve the ends of conciseness and directness. The fourth step should include a discussion of the case for recreation, a pointing out of its place in community life and its part in the life of the individual. This material should be a conscious attempt to interpret the need for and place of organized leisure-time

opportunities, and the responsibility of the community to maintain a program of recreation for its people. The next step is a presentation of basic data relating to population, economic level, social organization and other factors that characterize the community.

Detailed findings should then be presented relating to all public agencies and private agencies that are functioning in recreation. They should include administration, finance, leadership, areas and facilities, program, participation and community relationships. Commercial recreation, industrial recreation, church recreation and home and family recreation should also be analyzed.

Detailed recommendations are next in order. They should be divided into those for immediate action and those for long-range planning. Maps, charts, and tables may be interspersed throughout the report or presented in appendices at the end.

Organization of the survey report outlined here is merely suggestive. Other plans are also efficient and in use. The plan chosen will depend to a degree upon the preferences of the survey staff and committee and the nature of the subject matter.

Presentation

Presentation of the final survey report should be made first to the agency which has sponsored it. It should be accompanied by a personal interpretation by the survey director. It should then be made available to other agencies included in the study and to other agencies and boards in the community. Plans should be made to present and interpret the findings and recommendations to the community. Reprints of the significant parts can be made for general distribution and for use of the press and radio.

SUGGESTED READINGS

Books

- Brunner, Edmund. *Surveying Your Community*. New York: George H. Doran Co., 1925.
- Colcord, Joanna. *Your Community*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947.
- Klein, Phillip. *A Social Study of Pittsburgh*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1938. Chapter XX.

- Morgan, Arthur E. *The Small Community*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1942. Chapter XII.
- Olsen, E. G. and others. *School and Community*. New York: Prentice-Hall Co., 1945. Chapter IX.

ARTICLES

- Adams, L. Carroll. "Active Recreational Interests of Columbia College Alumni." *The Research Quarterly*, March, 1948.
- "Basic Community Survey." *Elementary School Journal*, October, 1939.
- Brunner, Edmund. "How to Study a Community." *Teachers College Record*, March, 1941.
- Butler, G. D. "New Schedule for Appraising City Recreation Facilities." *Public Management*, January, 1941.
- Daniels, A. S. "Report on National Survey of Student Recreation in Colleges and Universities." *Research Quarterly*, October, 1940.
- Evison, Herbert. "The National Recreation Report." *Park and Recreation Yearbook*, 1941.
- "Guide to a Community Self-Study." *Community Organization for Youth Services*, December, 1946.
- Harper, Florence S. "Students Make a Recreational Survey." *Educational Method*, March, 1939.
- Howland, A. E. and Myers, A. V. "Handbook of Community Resources." *National Elementary Principal*, September, 1945.
- Newell, Bernice. "Trends in Community Surveys." *Educational Method*, October, 1938.
- "Off the Job Living." *A Medical Survey of the Bituminous Coal Industry*. Report of the Coal Mines Administration. Washington, D. C.: Department of Interior, Government Printing Office, 1947.
- "Report of the Special Committee on General Recreation." *The Senate Minutes*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, November 13, 1947.
- "Study of the Community." *Elementary School Journal*. October, 1939.
- "Survey of College Recreation Facilities." *Sports Management*, February, March, 1947.
- "The Park, Parkway and Recreational-Area Study." *Park and Recreation Yearbook*, 1937.
- Toogood, Ruth. "A Survey of Recreational Interests and Pursuits of College Women." *Research Quarterly*, October, 1937.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

- A Survey of the Private Recreation and Youth Services Agencies of Columbus and Franklin County.* Columbus: Council of Social Agencies, November, 1946.
- A Survey of Public and Voluntary Recreation in Hamilton County, Ohio.* Cincinnati: Bureau of Governmental Research. February, 1947.
- Batchelor, W. C. *Recreation Survey and Long-Range Plan.* Norfolk: City Council, 1946.
- Cary, Clifford M. and Thompson, Leslie J. *Survey Manual.* New York: Association Press, 1947.
- Chicago Recreation Survey.* Chicago: Municipal Reference Library, 1937-1940. (Five volumes.)
- Community Wise.* New York: The Woman's Press, 1947.
- Determining Recreational Interests.* Chicago: Industrial Recreation Association, 1943.
- Fitzgerald, Gerald B. *Recreation Survey of Austin, Minnesota.* Austin: Recreation Board, 1946.
- Gardner, Ella. *Development of a Leisure-Time Program in Small Cities and Towns.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Children's Bureau, Government Printing Office, 1937.
- How to Know and Use Your Community.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1942.
- How to Make a Community Youth Survey.* Washington, D. C.: American Youth Commission, 1939.
- Improvement of Community Living.* Nashville: George Peabody Teachers College, November, 1941.
- Industrial Recreation.* Lafayette: Purdue University, 1940.
- Know Your Community.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1943.
- Know Your Community.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, Government Printing Office, 1941.
- Measuring the Effectiveness of Your Community.* Ithaca: University of Cornell Extension Bulletin 444, 1940.
- Nelson, Lowry, *Making a Community Survey.* St. Paul: University of Minnesota Agricultural Extension Service, 1941.
- Planning for Recreation Areas and Facilities in Small Towns and Cities.* Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Office of Community War Services, Recreation Division, Government Printing Office, 1945.

- Play at Home and Abroad.* Princeton, New Jersey: The Gallup Poll, 1948.
- Recreation for Everybody.* Los Angeles: Metropolitan Welfare Council, 1946. (Two volumes.)
- Recreation Long-Range Plan.* Bremerton, Washington: Planning Commission, 1945.
- Recreation Plan for the City of Whittier and Environs.* Whittier, California: Regional Planning Committee, February, 1948.
- Schedule for the Appraisal of Community Recreation.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1944.
- Scoring Sheet for Community Recreation Appraisal Schedule.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1947.
- Silverman, Lewis K. "A Study of Factors Associated With Activity Choices of Participants in Organized Public Recreation Centers." *Research Quarterly*, March, 1944.
- The Leisure Hours of 5,000 People.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1934.
- The Waterbury Survey.* Waterbury: Council of Social Agencies, 1945.
- Tomorrow's Community.* Ames: Iowa State Teachers College, June, 1940.
- Weir, L. H. *Public Recreation in Gary, Indiana.* Gary: Board of Park Commissioners, February, 1946.
-
- *Recreation Survey for the City of Minneapolis.* Minneapolis: Board of Park Commissioners, September, 1944.

CHAPTER IX

Principles of Community Organization for Recreation —

Education, sociology, social work, recreation, psychology and community organization combine to produce certain guideposts or principles which are worthy of study by those who would seek better communities through community organization for recreation. Some of these principles have been expressly mentioned in preceding chapters while others have been implied. All bear repetition. They may be applied to any level—national, state, regional, county, city or neighborhood—in community organization in the majority of cases with the exception of those expressly related to a specific level. Too much dependence must not be placed, however, upon abstract principles to the exclusion of the importance of the will to cooperate and to the minimization of the necessity for real effort to subjugate differences and rally resources. The development of machinery in the form of a coordinating or an administrative body is not a guarantee of successful achievement. Nevertheless, a willingness to achieve will be greatly aided by the adherence to sound practices which have proved their effectiveness in community organization for recreation.

Many of the principles discussed here may be applied successfully to endeavors calling for cooperative action in a number of areas of community life. Others arise from the specific nature of recreation and its place in community affairs. A belief in the value and validity of the procedures outlined here is essential to their effective use. Some persons will have to experience the application of a principle in order to subscribe to it or to receive benefits from it. This consideration applies to laymen and professionals alike.

1. *All groups, organizations and agencies that have or should have an interest in recreation should be part of any and all overall procedures related to community organization for recreation.* Adherence to this principle not only is democratic but is an intelligent recognition of the contribution each has to make. In addition it is an educational process for those who have little or no grasp of their place in the total community structure for recreation. Its adoption assures inclusion of all factors that can contribute to the strengthening of recreation in the community. It also will reveal those who have objections or misinformation relating to the objectives of the plans under consideration and thus facilitate the overcoming of such obstacles by bringing them into the open where they can be dealt with intelligently. Application of this principle will, in addition, provide an acquaintance with the plans of individual groups to the end that they can be considered in any procedures to better recreation opportunities. Disregard or ignorance of the contribution of any one factor will weaken the community organization process in proportion to the degree which that factor could add to the process. All interests, including youth, must have a voice in community recreation planning.

2. *Community organization involves more than a summation of parts.* Every community will find within it many resources which are basically equipped or which can be adapted to attack specific needs such as recreation. A technique for assemblage of these resources into effective cooperative and coordinative associations is necessary. A further consideration relates to taking stock of the combined abilities of present resources to render needed services on the basis of their characteristics, leadership, financial resources, facilities and degree of flexibility of purpose and program. The inventory may reveal that in spite of extended effort, efficient coordination and cooperative planning, something additional must be added to fit the needs as expressed or as determined through careful analysis.

Perhaps the necessary additional factors can be developed out of present resources, but any apparent need for new organizations, agencies or services must not be glossed over. Frankness in admitting shortcomings and inability to render satisfactory and complete service within the confines of existing resources is a

mark of sound planning. Where the need for new and additional parts to complete the structure is clearly indicated action should be taken to secure them. It may be necessary to add a public recreation authority, a Boy Scout program, a community chest, a coordinating council executive committee, a school recreation program or a youth center in order that good community organization for recreation may be attained.

3. *Official participation by representatives of government bodies is necessary in plans to establish or improve recreation in the community.* Planning for recreation will be neither efficient nor complete in the absence of participation by persons with authority to act in a definitive manner upon plans to develop recreation opportunities. Good planning plus authority to act is a necessary combination in community progress.

4. *The acceptance of public responsibility for recreation is basic to good community organization for recreation.* The foundation of basic recreation services must be provided by government. Recreation is a responsibility of all the people to be expressed through its designation as a function of government. The administration of public recreation services cannot be confined to a single pattern. Characteristics, needs and wishes of the community, plus the stage of development of its social institutions, will determine administrative methods. It is certain, however, that no recreation service will be complete on the local level without participation by municipal agencies and public education institutions. The school board and the city council together must share the responsibility for an efficient program of public recreation opportunities. The extent to which each will share administratively and financially is a problem to be decided by the individual community.

A plan whereby the school authorities administer the public recreation program aided by financial assistance and maintenance of certain recreation properties on the part of city officials is successfully followed in many localities. In others the municipal authorities administer recreation with the school board permitting full use of school facilities. In still others a joint recreation board or commission acts as an agent of the city and school authorities, utilizing funds and facilities contributed by each. The practice whereby city and school authorities each maintains

a separate recreation service is clearly the most undesirable. Its poor features can be somewhat, but not entirely, overcome by the presence of a coordinating council or committee in which each fully participates. In the small community it would appear that the school board has many potential advantages as the recreation administrative authority.

As a public function recreation must be provided with adequate tax funds for facilities, leadership and program. The public recreation service must be available to all races, creeds and neighborhoods.

5. A community recreation advisory committee or council is an essential part of the recreation structure. Regardless of the form of public recreation administration in the community certain accomplishments are beyond its reach. They relate to the total pattern of community recreation opportunities in which the participation of non-government groups is essential. Such groups represent youth-serving organizations, churches, civic groups and industrial and commercial enterprise. A community recreation advisory or coordinating body is a necessary means to achieve integration and coordination of all human and material resources in the direction of joint planning and action for recreation. It must be inclusive, providing a place for all interests. The co-ordinating group represents the best means to reach on a collective basis the primary objectives of the individual agencies and groups represented on it, namely, the provision of opportunities through recreation for personal development and advancement of the democratic way of life.

Recreation is a community affair and can be successfully planned only through community, not agency, planning. It transcends the abilities and resources of individual interests whose efforts can ripen best when planted in common ground.

6. Community coordinating councils must make a choice between the functions of coordination and operation. In recreation, as in other areas of community life, the coordinating function and the operating function do not have an affinity for one another. It is not easy to combine them into a single entity. Coordination and operation do not share the same techniques to an inclusive degree. Where the coordinating group embarks on a program of

operation dividing its attention between the total and the specific, it weakens its primary purpose and loses a measure of effectiveness. It thus becomes, in effect, an object of its own purpose. Adherence to this principle does not preclude the inclusion of representatives of operating agencies on coordinating councils. Indeed, it would be impossible for the council to fulfill its function if it did not have such persons prominent among its membership. But the coordinating council is an agent to further coordination among operating agencies; to plan for more efficient services; and to discover needs. To meet its purpose it must, therefore, include people who are in positions of administration, but not act as an agency itself. Stimulation is more in keeping with the function of coordination than is operation.

7. *National coordination and state coordination are related to the effectiveness of coordination at the local level.* Only recently have determined efforts been made to coordinate national social work agencies operating programs in local communities; public and private national programs; federal public programs; and state agency services in recreation. These movements have been described in Chapter V. If local planning for recreation is to be effective there must be coordination among national and state programs and services that have their effect upon or final application in the local community. National and state coordination should be so engineered as not to violate the integrity of the local community. Where national and state funds and techniques of coordination are present or are proposed in both public and private agency fields there are many who rise to protest that such provision means domination of local prerogatives by higher levels of interests. Such vigilance is commendable but it should not prohibit stimulation and assistance of the proper type to reach the local community. Financial aid and coordinative techniques originating in national and state agencies must strengthen, not weaken or destroy, local initiative, planning and administrative control. Proper application of this principle means that:

- a. Local, state and national recreation agencies, public and private, should cooperate closely to establish and improve recreation

b. Recreation services originating at the state level and related to local communities should be of a stimulating, consultant, research and coordinating nature

c. Recreation services originating at the national level and related to the states should be of a stimulating, consultant, research and coordinating nature

8. *A study of the present status of recreation in the community is a sound procedure in efforts to develop coordination and meet needs.* Discovering community needs, planning a program to fit the needs, and executing the program are three important steps in community organization for recreation. They will be facilitated by a study of current recreation opportunities. Any survey or study should be comprehensive enough to furnish facts and recommendations based on facts which will lead to betterment of the recreation services. To be effective the study should be broad enough to include all significant factors that bear upon the total pattern of community recreation. The study itself is a means of coordinating present efforts and interests in recreation. Action must be based upon a plan and a plan can be devised only after facts have been secured. A well executed study will furnish them. Community conditions do not remain static and recurrent studies are necessary if recreation services are to keep abreast of community needs.

The best studies are those in which both the layman and the professional participate. Each has much to learn from the other. The professional cannot conscientiously deviate from recommendations based on sound principles of recreation practice but he must have a knowledge of community conditions to interpret his recommendations properly. The layman must be able to appreciate the need for local customs and wishes and to adapt himself to sound administrative, financial, leadership and coordinating factors that will result in an improved pattern of recreation services.

9. *Recreation is the responsibility of all citizens and many agencies.* This principle is worthy of study both by those agencies or groups who would disclaim any responsibility for recreation and by those who would claim recreation to be their prerogative and deter others from entering the field. To be available to all

recreation must be a governmental function but not exclusively so. The assistance of all community organizations is essential to widespread opportunities for leisure-time activities. Recreation is not encompassed by all groups but it encompasses them all.

The city council or school board which disowns responsibility for participation in recreation and attempts to make a case for the other to accept full responsibilities is uninformed as to the nature of recreation and the need for many to share in its keeping. Similarly the public body, private agency, civic group, industrial concern, commercial enterprise, home or church which attempts to evade responsibility for a share in wholesome recreation opportunities or which purports to maintain opportunities that make it unnecessary for the others to function in recreation is also ignorant of the concept of community recreation.

A further duty common to all is the need to take part wholeheartedly in methods of coordinating leadership, programs and facilities in the best interests of the community at large. In this way the functions and needed services in recreation can be best determined on the basis of the purposes, resources and abilities of each agency and organization in the community.

10. *In executing a program of recreation to meet community needs the operation should be put in the hands of the professional.* Recreation leadership is a specialty. It is not something that can be successfully performed by anyone and everyone. Part-time leaders, voluntary leaders and professionals in fields which are allied to recreation or are a specialized part of its broad field cannot be expected to contribute their maximum or to provide a complete program unless they are under the guidance of one who is trained in the specialty of leadership in recreation. Neither can recreation authorities nor coordinating councils efficiently administer or coordinate recreation in the absence of the professional. Planning, policy making, coordination and interpretation of need are the areas in which lay recreation boards and coordinating councils are at their best. Administration of recreation programs on the basis of good recreation philosophy and practice is the special forte of the professional. Policies, plans and needs will flounder helplessly and are doomed to exist without proper treatment in their original state, or nearly so, unless competent leadership is provided. The good intentions of laymen, volunteer

leaders and professionally trained people in fields akin to recreation cannot individually or collectively provide the type of leadership needed in recreation. Where the professional recreation leader is present the efforts of all others become more meaningful and better adapted to meeting the total needs.

11. *In a large urban area community and neighborhood coordinating councils should be related through a representative central body provided with paid leadership.* The neighborhood council in large cities is a necessary body to insure the type of opportunity for lay participation and joint planning that is represented by the community council in smaller cities and towns. To further implement their effectiveness in total community planning and coordination neighborhood councils should be affiliated with a central body in which all unit councils are represented. Such an organizational structure is a major operation in the general area of community coordination, and to meet its primary purposes requires a paid professional community organization worker functioning under the direction of the central body and giving service to the component councils. Because coordinating councils usually have recreation as one of their major concerns and because their interests are in the field of community organization, the paid leader should be trained and experienced in community organization with at least secondary qualifications in recreation or group work. The professional acts as executive secretary of the central body and as consultant to the unit councils. He attends their meetings and provides expert guidance. He also often represents them in contacts with other community organizations. He acts as an integrating professional resource equipped to render the individual neighborhood council more effective and to make it better prepared to participate in community-wide activities.

12. *A small nuclear group is often the best means of initiating a movement for a coordinating device to include all social forces in the community.* Investigation of the origin of community co-ordinating councils for recreation and for other social needs indicates that such groups have had a varied parentage. Some have been brought about by government bodies; others by non-government agencies; others by civic groups; and still others by a combination of these. The need for a coordinating group is usually first sighted by an individual or by two or three persons

who have a professional or a lay interest in a given field of community service. Preliminary thought by them leads to the assembling of a small group with like interests to establish definitely the need and to discuss practical procedures that might be adopted to relieve the problems at hand. Their deliberations do not go far before they feel need for additional counsel and realize the wisdom of inviting all who have an interest in the question to explore what action might be taken. The idea engendered by a few then spreads throughout a network of social forces in the community. A meeting is planned to which are invited representatives of these forces. The problem is presented, all opinions are voiced, a group with a purpose is born, and plans are made for further study and inquiry. The need is now within the focus of many groups and cooperative action is in the making.

13. *A permanent, sound structure for achieving good recreation organization and opportunities is more important than quick results.* A definite gain for recreation is more significant, even though it may be only a small advance, than large claims for the purposes of publicity. Recreation coordinating councils in the fact of their organization have already made a sound advance, and they should not be rushed into ill-advised quick action. They will succeed best when they have worked out a plan of procedure including a systematic method of studying the community's recreation needs. For its first objective it is wise for the council to select a project on a small scale that promises to meet with success. Securing tangible results of a positive nature will encourage the membership and stimulate it to seek larger gains.

14. *Community support is essential to the realization of new major departures in recreation.* Community organization efforts related to major new or drastically revised procedures in the community's recreation service must have full community support if they are to be successfully attained. Examples of procedures of this type are charter changes involving creation of a recreation authority or abolition of an old recreation authority in favor of a new one, referendum campaigns and extensive building enterprises. The recreation authority will find the community recreation advisory council or coordinating committee an invaluable device to reach success in these matters. The council can interpret need for the new departure to the community as a whole and through

its members can secure approval of the individual community groups which they represent.

15. *People must come to know and trust one another before they can achieve results through cooperative planning and action.* Mere existence of a structure for coordination is not a guarantee of success. Where a member of a coordinating council has not successfully worked previously in other endeavors with some or all of the members of the group, he will be reluctant to acquiesce in proposals for action presented at the first meetings of the council. The council is not only a means of coordinating material resources but also a method of unifying human resources as well. The former is dependent upon the latter. Full recognition should be given to the achievements of and the services being performed by all parties. After all have become acquainted with the services, objectives, plans and interests of the others the time has arrived for consideration of cooperative planning and action.

16. *Duplication of effort is less important a consideration than is the filling of gaps.* Recreation coordination based solely on the elimination of duplication of effort is a negative approach unless there is a glaring and flagrant violation of agency or group function. A more positive step is to discover gaps in services and to plan action to eliminate them. Whereas the first procedure will meet with distrust and hostility, the second method will provide an affirmative means of self-analysis for operating groups and a challenge to adapt resources to cover needs. Any duplication of service cannot long survive under such an approach.

17. *Recreation must be related to other social services in the community.* Recreation is a member of the community family. The state of its health will be conditioned by the associations it maintains with all other members. Thus recreation and youth service, recreation and education, recreation and housing, recreation and economic institutions, recreation and city planning, recreation and municipal and school finance, and recreation and child welfare must all be of concern to the recreation authority and other leisure-time agencies. In some instances, such as city finances, recreation will be somewhat dependent while in others, such as youth services, it will have much to contribute. Recreation must maintain associations with many other community forces and must be able to command their respect.

18. *Communities and neighborhoods exhibit major individual differences.* A very serious error in recreation planning would be to assume that patterns of recreation administration and program offerings can be indiscriminately transplanted from community to community. Principles, yes, but patterns, no. If the principles of good recreation planning, administration and co-ordination are present the pattern is not so important. The plan must fit the community and be accepted by it. A recreation program of competent and respected character can flourish under any one of a variety of patterns provided that the essentials which give it life are to be found in their entirety somewhere within the recreation plan adopted by the individual community.

19. *Recreation enabling legislation of a broad nature is essential to community recreation.* One of the state's responsibilities in recreation is to see that enabling legislation of a broad nature is available to permit communities to establish and maintain the type of public recreation service they want and need. Legislation should provide the widest possible choice of means for financing, administering and operating recreation facilities and programs by municipal, school, county and regional authorities either individually or in any combination deemed mutually desirable.

20. *Adequate financial provision is necessary to community recreation.* Recreation requires extensive facilities, leadership and supplies to fulfill its proper place in community life. To provide these adequate funds should be made available. Both tax funds and money raised through voluntary contributions are necessary. The public service should be tax supported while the funds for private agencies should come from voluntary sources. Proper legal safeguards both in state and local legislation are essential to insure sufficient and permanent sources of tax funds for the conduct of public recreation.

21. *Extensive and varied indoor and outdoor areas and facilities are necessary to community recreation.* It is the responsibility of public agencies to supply the bulk of areas and facilities for community recreation. Private agencies should finance any buildings or special structures they deem necessary to the conduct of their program. They should also be given free access to the use of public facilities and areas on a coordinated basis consistent with the needs of the public program. Areas and facilities must

exist in all neighborhoods, be of all types necessary to satisfy varieties of recreation interests, and be adequate to meet the needs of all. Facilities of public agencies should be developed in accordance with a master city plan to insure maximum use and complete coverage of all sections of the community.

22. *Public school properties must be available for community use.* School facilities are vital to community recreation and should be included in all planning related to public recreation facilities on a community-wide basis. Multiple use and maximum use of school properties can only be realized where school and city planning are coordinated. The more completely the school is planned to serve the recreation and education needs of children the better it will be fitted to meet the needs of community recreation.

23. *Suggestions as to method and procedure specifically applicable to community councils of many types include:*

- a. The council should encompass the natural geographical area concerned with common problems regardless of legal boundaries. Human needs do not recognize artificial demarcations.
- b. Sufficient time should be taken to organize the council. No plan of action should be advanced until all thoroughly understand the purpose and objectives of the group.
- c. If the council is to adopt a constitution its wording should be broad enough to allow the council to be free to develop its activities in accordance with community needs.
- d. The council should seek the support of all community organizations. Small as well as large groups should be represented as well as operating and non-operating groups. Individual members should also be provided for as representatives of the community at large.
- e. Committees and subcommittees should be appointed as needed to carry out the council's work. They will serve to identify many of the members with specific assignments related to the objectives of the total group.
- f. Official recognition should be secured from major community organizations. This will be partially achieved through the plan of council membership. Direct affiliation with councils of social agencies or public bodies such as boards of education

and city councils, however, will add stature to the council and strength to its deliberations and recommendations.

g. Power of appointment to the council should not be in the hands of an individual or select group. All interested organizations should have a delegate selected by them.

h. The council should exert its efforts in the direction of meeting expressed and discovered needs and not toward agency programs. The total community need should be the focal point in the council's program with agency programs considered only in relation to the need and to community planning in the area of the need.

i. Central representative bodies composed of delegates from several community or neighborhood councils should have a clearly defined relationship to their member units. The unit should be free to deal with matters of local concern while the central body should serve as a clearing house, as a stimulus to unit effort and as a means of relating unit and community-wide mutual interests.

j. Care must be taken in the matter of affiliation with sponsoring agencies and in acceptance of financial support. Joint sponsorship and joint financing are preferable in order to avoid any danger of becoming the tool of any agency or interest group.

k. Efficient leadership is basically important to the council's success. This reference is chiefly to lay leadership. The council may or may not be formally organized. In either case, however, leadership must be appointed which will effectively stimulate the council to keep to its course. The council, not being a part of a national agency pattern, must depend upon resourceful local leadership to fit its activities to the needs of the community.

SUGGESTED READINGS

Books

Loomis, Clarence. *An Experience in Community Development and the Principles of Community Organization*. Clayton, Georgia: The Rabun Press, 1944.

Ogden, Jean and Ogden, Jess. *Small Communities in Action*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1946, Part V.

The Offender in the Community. New York: National Probation Association, Yearbook, 1938.

ARTICLES

- Lindeman, Eduard C. "New Patterns of Community Organization." *Proceedings National Conference Social Work*, 1937.
- McClusky, Howard Y. "Some Current Trends in Community Organization." *Adult Education Bulletin*, February, 1946.
- Ogden, J. "Up From the South. Present Trends in Community Organization." *Adult Education Journal*, January, 1945.
- Pfeiffer, C. W. "Sacramento Conference on Community Organization." *Community Organization for Youth Services*, March, 1946.
- "Principles of Community Organization." *School Executive*, November, 1944.
- Sorenson, Roy. "Community Organization or Community Disorganization?" *Community Coordination*, January-February, 1942.
- Thrasher, F. M. "Some Principles Underlying Community Coordination." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1945.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

- A Guide to Community Coordination.* Los Angeles: Coordinating Councils, Inc., 1941.
- Coordinating Community Efforts.* Charlottesville: University of Virginia Extension Division, New Dominion Series, No. 6, November 15, 1941.
- Coordinating Councils in California.* Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1938.
- Health and Welfare Planning in the Smaller Community.* New York: Community Chests and Councils, Inc., 1945.
- Mathewson, R. H. *Organizing a Community Adjustment Program.* Hartford: Connecticut State Department of Education, Guidance Bul. No. 1, 1940.
- Memorandum, Community Organization for Health and Welfare on a State-Wide Basis.* New York: Community Chests and Councils, Inc., 1946.
- Recreation Meets a Challenge.* Charlottesville: University of Virginia Extension Division, New Dominion Series, No. 12, April 1, 1942.
- Ross, Murray G. *Community Councils.* Ottawa: Canadian Council of Education for Citizenship, 1945.
- The National Conference on the Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency, Summaries of Recommendations for Action.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1947.

CHAPTER X

Community Leadership ~

Community leadership is related to the basic purposes of community coordination: unification of effort and stimulation of lay participation in community affairs. The community leader, therefore, can be neither solely an agency leader nor unappreciative of the place of lay leadership in community life. He must recognize that there are two types of leaders, the professional and the layman, and that he himself will fit into one of these categories. The fundamental difference between the two is specialized techniques and knowledge based on training and experience. In community life a leader may be professionally qualified in one area and possess only lay qualifications in all others. The need for his participation is no less in those community affairs in which he acts as a layman than in the area in which he is able to lead professionally. Effective associations between the lay and the professional leader are fundamental to the community organization process. Each must respect the place and contribution of the other; one cannot replace the other; both are necessary. In many instances progress will depend as much or more upon the layman as upon the professional.

Leadership is ability to influence independent people to recognize goals of common interest and to stimulate them to act cooperatively to achieve their goals. Leadership, therefore, is not successful unless those who are affected by it achieve progress toward their common objectives. Leadership exists on a wide range. It may be concerned with special interest groups pursuing selfish objectives; with groups whose motives do not recognize the rights of others; or with groups who are interested in betterment of community conditions in the best interest of all. This discussion is concerned with the last.

Community leadership takes upon itself a mantle which it cannot easily discard. It occupies a place in community affairs that has many responsibilities. Not the least of these is the necessity to rise to higher levels of competence as the community accepts

it and achieves under its guidance. The community which responds to leadership and progresses through it then needs it more than before. Leadership that fulfills its purpose must be capable of encompassing ever larger concepts. It is more necessary in keeping things organized than it is in the process of organization. Successfully applied, leadership brings new and widened responsibilities to those who practice it.

SOURCES OF LEADERSHIP

The sources of leadership within a community and the means by which it is expressed are varied. In most communities leadership will be forthcoming from and expressed through community organizations of all types including civic, church, labor, business, governmental and veterans' groups; professional groups such as those in medicine, law, education and other professions; and through individuals including laymen, public officials, and private and public agency professionals. In the small community not all of these sources are to be found and it is well to recognize this. Theories of community organization should not be predicated on the assumption that professional people are available in all fields in small communities to participate as leaders in the community organization process. In recreation, for example, it is difficult to point out professional leaders in either public or private agencies in all small localities. Lay leadership and professional people in fields allied to recreation must provide a greater degree of effort to organize for recreation when professionals are not available. Their efforts will never be able to substitute fully for professional recreation leaders but much can be accomplished through laymen, including volunteer activity leaders, and the school faculty. More can be accomplished when small communities join together in a county or regional recreation structure of a public or private nature to secure at least part-time professional service.

Leadership Through Community Organizations

Few organizations of a general civic nature do not feel that they have a responsibility to participate in community affairs in

addition to pursuing the specific objectives of their group. Many of them include community betterment as a primary or secondary purpose for their existence. Such groups are basic sources of lay leadership and represent fundamental methods of expressing community leadership. Many of them at some time or another come face to face with needs related to community recreation. Some of them attempt to meet such needs by actively sponsoring or conducting recreation activities for certain segments of the population such as children or youth. Others seek to stimulate public officials to discharge their responsibilities in recreation. Still others endeavor to lead a movement to organize a community council or committee composed of representatives of all community organizations for the purpose of arousing public opinion in support of recreation. With respect to the first procedure, that is, sponsoring recreation programs, many instances can be pointed out as examples of successful achievement. The American Legion junior baseball program is a case in point. Holiday observations and patriotic day programs are examples of special events frequently conducted by civic groups. In general, however, lay leadership of this type can best be expressed through affiliation with established recreation agencies where they exist.

Of the other two methods of lay leadership through community groups, joining forces with other interests to form a community recreation council is preferable to action by a single organization. In unity there is strength—strength gained from combined resources and democratic representation. The individual group thus becomes a partner in teamwork, a member of a solid block of public opinion which can achieve far more than can be realized through efforts of single organizations. Community groups should take great care in the selection of members to represent them on community coordinating councils. They should choose persons who possess the qualities of community leadership, for as members of a community committee the representatives must be capable of contributing a measure of leadership. The representatives must not only be capable of interpreting their organizations' views to the coordinating council in an accurate fashion and of correctly advising the organization of the committee's objectives and procedures, but more important, they must be able to add to the collective leadership ability of the coordinating body their own

talents as lay leaders in addition to the strength of the groups they represent. They should be equipped with experience in committee work and with a profound interest in community betterment and they should be able to speak with some authority for the groups they represent.

Leadership Through Individuals

Individuals have instituted many movements in community organization. Their identities and contributions are often lost sight of in the larger sphere of activity engendered by their insight and initiative. Their satisfaction lies in the achievements of others awakened to action. Community coordinating bodies should always provide a place for individuals not representing groups or agencies but selected on the basis of their ability to contribute to the purpose at hand. The individual may be selected because of technical ability, standing in the community, demonstrated ability as a leader in community life, or on the strength of a combination of these. He may be a layman, a public official or a public or private agency professional head or staff member. The last, professional people, will ordinarily be requested to represent their agencies on a coordinating council if the agencies are related to the purpose of the council. Some professional people also have a distinct contribution to make to the work of coordinating groups active in fields other than those in which their agency is interested, and they should be included on the council as individuals representing no agency.

Coordinating councils, especially in small communities, often feel that professional leadership from outside the community is essential to their purpose. Such leadership should be considered in terms of a source of guidance and a technical resource of an experienced nature. It cannot substitute for community interest and action in matters of community life. Outside professional leadership can furnish local leaders with an objective evaluation of present services, efforts to better conditions, and need for adaptation of current programs and inauguration of new services to meet community needs. It can also make known the experiences of other communities and the principles of good administrative, financial, leadership and program practices. In short, a combina-

tion of laymen and professionals is best suited to the development of community leadership and the realization of the purposes of community coordination.

QUALIFICATIONS

Those who accept the responsibilities of community leadership, be they laymen or professionals, need special qualifications in order to fulfill their duties. In a democracy it is axiomatic that any individual has a right, yes, a duty, to express his views regarding the conditions under which he and his family are to live. But it does not follow that all free individuals possess the qualities of leadership. Education and experience in community affairs can do much to prepare people for community leadership. Such preparation is one of the duties of our system of education. This has been more fully discussed in Chapter VI.

Coordinating Council Chairmen

Coordinating councils dealing as they do with many phases of community life will not find it possible to secure chairmen versed in all interests which may come within the sphere of the councils' interest and activity. Nor will coordinating councils having as their objective but one area of community life, such as recreation, be able always to readily name laymen as chairmen who have an over-all knowledge of recreation and its implications with particular respect to their own communities. It is possible, however, to find an individual qualified through community prestige, interest in community betterment, personality traits and proven leadership ability to act as the council chairman. The chairman's leadership ability will be manifested by his selection of sub-committee chairmen and professional resource people to supplement his talents and to cover gaps in his abilities. Where possible prospective and active chairmen should undergo training in the duties of coordinating council chairmen. Adult education departments in many cities provide training of this type. The Los Angeles County coordinating councils conduct a series of training conferences for new council chairmen. There are many qualities some of which are essential and all of which are highly desirable in coordinating council chairmen. The chairman should be:

1. Respected by the community for his business or professional accomplishments or his record as a public official
2. Possessed of a record of leadership in his own field. This may be a natural outcome of the above.
3. Widely acquainted in the community and a resident of the community which the council represents
4. Known to have a broad interest in community affairs, an interest which transcends any agency affiliations he may have
5. Experienced in committee work and in methods of conducting a meeting
6. Able to allocate work judiciously to subcommittees and to allow them freedom to pursue their assigned tasks
7. Possessed of an understanding of the right of all individuals, groups, organizations and agencies to present their views and of an appreciation for the sincere opinions of all regardless of their economic, social, racial or religious backgrounds
8. Able to speak effectively in public and to represent the views of the coordinating council adequately before governmental bodies and other community groups
9. Possessed of a belief in the merits of cooperative and democratic action
10. Able to discover and stress points of agreement upon which cooperative action can be based
11. Able to guide discussion into the channels of planned action without depriving individuals of a full opportunity to express themselves
12. Able to restrain himself from using his position as chairman to advance his views ahead of the wishes of the group
13. Able to make pertinent suggestions at the right time and to advance new methods of procedure when the committee appears to be blocked

Coordinating Council Members

Members of coordinating bodies are usually selected by a group, an organization or an agency to represent it, or are invited to serve as individuals because of their special abilities. In any case the compelling motive behind their service should be a desire

to create a better community. The group representative has a further duty related to his group affiliation. Care must be observed in selecting both types of council members. Responsibility for naming a good group representative falls upon the group itself, while the executive committee of the council or the council as a whole, as the case may be, is charged with the selection of competent persons as individual members of the council.

Groups which have been invited to name representatives to the coordinating council should select the type of individual who:

1. Has successfully represented the group in previous co-operative efforts
2. Has an appreciation of the need for his group to take an active part in cooperative endeavors for community good
3. Has at least some knowledge of or civic interest in the problems to be considered by the council
4. Is willing to devote some time and effort to the council's program
5. Has the ability to represent the group without committing it to policies which first ought to be approved by the group membership
6. Can be entrusted with certain authority in the name of the group
7. Has the ability to interpret clearly and accurately the council's objectives and the policies of his group.
8. Has an appreciation of the contribution of other community organizations and is willing to recognize merit where it exists.
9. Has the ability to work successfully on committees.

Individuals requested to serve on the coordinating council as a result of their ability to contribute to its purpose and not representative of any group or agency should be:

1. The type whose presence inspires community confidence in the council
2. Possessed of wide experience in community affairs
3. Able to represent the interests of the community as a whole
4. Able to act as individuals without regard to any one of the groups or agencies to which they might belong

5. Able to advance the community viewpoint as rebuttal to any affirmations made from agency limited viewpoints
6. Persons who have successfully represented the community's interests in previous cooperative endeavors
7. Persons at whom no charge of selfish interest or group discrimination could ever be leveled

Official Board Members

Boards or commissions comprised of elective or appointive members are a common means of administration in public affairs. Park boards, recreation boards or commissions, and boards of education are the most frequent instruments of this type in recreation. Private leisure-time agencies are invariably governed by some form of board control. The alleged advantages and disadvantages of boards have been discussed previously. There remain the qualifications of board members. Because the welfare of the community is involved there can be no distinction between the qualifications of those who serve on boards in community affairs, whether they be elected or appointed. It is conceivable that a better type of board could be secured where members are appointed than where they are elected. Often persons well qualified for board service have neither the time nor the inclination to campaign for an elective position. Many who do take the time and effort to seek places on boards through public elections are poorly qualified to serve, and yet are successful in fulfilling their aspirations to public office. On the other hand, vestment of appointing power in the hands of a public official, such as the mayor, is not a guarantee of good selection or of non-political appointments.

The best guarantee of good board membership is a feeling of civic responsibility on the part of those who seek elective board posts and by those individual public officials who are given power to appoint boards. In some instances the public official's appointing power is limited. For example, many community recreation board members must be selected partly from city council members, partly from school board membership and partly from the citizenry at large. Thus the recreation authority is composed of some persons already selected as the people's representatives. Education

in American communities is in the hands of persons chosen in local school elections. It is generally agreed that education has been administered as well or better than most public functions.

Regardless of the method of selection of board members they act as community leaders and it is incumbent upon them to possess certain qualifications among which are:

1. A fundamental belief and interest in the purposes and duties of the board
2. A willingness to recognize the board's professional executive as head of the program
3. A belief in the need for professional training on the part of the board's employees
4. A reservoir of personal courage to uphold standards of service in the face of pressure from events beyond the board's control
5. An ability to handle finances and choose real values over false ones
6. A willingness to accept responsibility for policies which have been agreed upon
7. Good character; intelligence; open-mindedness; willingness to learn; and community-mindedness
8. A knowledge of the problems with which the board deals
9. A feeling of impersonal service to the community in that there is no desire for personal advantage for self, family or friends

Professional Coordinating Council Executives

Abilities of professional people working as paid executives with community coordinating councils must obviously be related to the purpose of the council. This purpose lies in the field of community organization generally and specifically in various areas of community service. The executive, therefore, must be trained in the techniques of community organization work primarily, and be secondarily qualified in one or more specific areas of community service, such as recreation, youth service or education. Likewise the professional recreation worker must have some

training in community organization as part of his basic preparation. Regardless of functions related to general or particular areas in community organization, those who would aspire to work effectively in this field should possess the following:

1. A broad basic training in general education, that is, education for common life
2. Attainment of competence in areas related to professional practice in community organization
3. Ability to function expertly in one or more areas of community service, such as community recreation, group work, youth service or education
4. Training in community surveys
5. Ability to work effectively with committees
6. Knowledge of community public and private welfare and recreation agencies, their purposes, structures and services
7. Ability as a discussion leader and public speaker
8. Knowledge of current developments in public affairs affecting community services
9. Ability to understand the relationships among various aspects of community life
10. Personal qualities related to successful group contacts and community acceptance

MENTAL HEALTH FOR LEADERS

Leadership imposes obligations upon community leaders somewhat in excess of their responsibilities as individual citizens in a democratic society. It demands an additional measure of fitness in all its aspects. The following are some suggestions which will assist community leaders, lay and professional, to maintain good mental hygiene as an aid to successful discharge of their responsibilities:

1. Develop a philosophy related to the place of leadership in community affairs.
2. Cultivate personal hobbies as part of a good pattern of leisure pursuits.

3. Look upon community service as one of the highest forms of leisure expression.
4. Exchange thoughts and aspirations with others. Be a good listener as well as a good talker.
5. Have faith in the integrity of fellow men. Give credit where credit is due.
6. Do not try to solve all problems singlehandedly. Seek and accept the aid and advice of others.
7. Admit shortcomings and perform the tasks you can do best.
8. Plan but also act.
9. Be ready to respond to leadership as well as to lead.
10. Have faith in the power of time. Remember that all things cannot be accomplished at once and that some may never be realized to the extent you would like.
11. Cultivate an association with nature. Contact with the land and with its products is of great benefit.
12. Participate in an active recreation—walking, sports, games or other active pursuits.
13. Practice an active spiritual affiliation. Recognize the place of religion in life.

THE COMMUNITY MEETING

The community meeting is a laboratory of democracy—the place where ingredients are mixed, experiments undertaken, solutions suggested, thoughts blended, suggestions discarded and adopted, and procedures agreed upon. In it the technique of compromise, the honorable recourse of free people, is productive of advancement toward common objectives. It is a means whereby all who have or should have an interest in community affairs may be stimulated to express their views and the opinions of those they represent. It is a sound technique in community organization methods representing the mass attack upon common problems. As a technique it has certain characteristics which must be recognized and adhered to if it is to be productive of its real purposes and benefits. Community meetings are not successful without preparation, adequate planning, good leadership and complete representation.

Suggestions for Successful Meetings

Good community meetings do not just happen. They are the outcome of planned procedure. Inadequate planning produces conflict, delay, incomplete information, insufficient representation and consequent waste of time and effort. There are many types and purposes of community meetings, each of which should be planned for specifically. Generalizations and guides which will contribute to fruitful deliberations may well be taken into account regardless of the type of meeting, are:

1. Planning should be done by a small group composed of those who represent a cross section of agencies, organizations and groups interested in the purpose of the meeting.
2. Care should be taken to invite representatives of all interests.
3. The planning group should place responsibility for carrying out details agreed upon in the hands of one person.
4. Planning should include determination of a proper place, date and time for the meeting which will, as best can be determined, result in maximum attendance.
5. Two hours should be the maximum time planned for the meeting. Most meetings reach an anti-climatic non-productive stage when carried on too long.
6. An agenda will be helpful in planning the meeting to accomplish its purpose.
7. Speakers invited to address the meeting should be given a definite time limit.
8. Program features, such as motion pictures, should be planned in relation to time elements and most effective place on the agenda.
9. Invitations to attend the meeting should be extended in sufficient time to allow for those invited to respond.
10. An agenda or suggested agenda should accompany the invitation.
11. Publicity should be well planned and carried out several days before the meeting through several media. General results of the meeting should also be publicized, including future plans.
12. Any lengthy reports or other data to be considered at the meeting should be at least summarized for previous consideration by those who are to attend the meeting.

The Chairman

Few meetings are productive without the services of a good chairman. The chairman is in a position of group leadership and must be equipped with personality traits and previous experience of a type that will enable him to discharge effectively the duties involved in leadership of this nature. The chairman as a leader is in a large measure responsible for setting the tone of the meeting. No one should be proposed for or should accept the position of chairman unless he is prepared to discharge the responsibilities it entails. A temporary chairman is often selected as a means of providing group organization pending the selection of a permanent presiding officer. His duties should not be extended beyond a period of time necessary to decide upon a permanent choice. Duties of this type of leadership are such that they can best be performed when put in the hands of one agreed upon by the members as a permanent choice. A temporary chairman is a good expedient to employ when the purposes and objectives of the group are not yet clearly defined. The permanent chairman in addition to personal qualifications should possess a good knowledge of and a special interest in the objectives of the group. Objectives should be decided upon and then a permanent chairman chosen on the basis of his leadership qualifications.

In some cases, such as meetings composed of individuals with decided differences of opinion, a moderator is chosen to act as chairman. He keeps the discussion related to the issues at hand and gives all interests equal opportunity to express their views. The moderator does not express an opinion or try to influence the group. He acts as a neutral force holding the members together to seek a solution acceptable to all concerned. The community meeting chairman is more than a moderator. He should be an enthusiastic leader speaking with conviction and influencing the group to constructive action on the issues concerned. The chairman should endeavor to give a concise, clear statement of the problems; secure expressions of opinion from all present; suggest methods of solution; create a spirit of friendliness; give the discussion an atmosphere of importance; provide a framework for discussion; present or have others present facts relating to the discussion; and seek agreement on measures for action.

SUGGESTIONS TO LEADERS

Stimulation of cooperation is one of the chief functions in community leadership. The process of community life is essentially a cooperative enterprise and its achievements come as a result of cooperative action engaged in by all of the people or by large sections of the population. In a democracy leadership must be related to cooperation freely given on the basis of understanding and desire for improvement. Education occupies a distinct place in training for cooperative planning and achievement, particularly in establishing a basis for understanding the need for and beneficial results of coordinated effort. Thus the stress in education today is to relate it to community life and to the forces that shape the affairs of the community as well as to the acquisition of the basic tools of expression and of vocations. Achievement must be based on understanding and education fosters understanding. The more competent our system of education the more effective and extensive will be the fruits of intelligent leadership. Leadership itself, however, is in effect an educational procedure. Based on this premise the following are suggested as worthy of consideration by community leaders:

1. People cannot be expected to act intelligently upon a proposal which they do not fully understand.
2. All people are not equipped to contribute in the same measure to a cooperative undertaking. Leadership should discover what can be done best by individuals.
3. The attitudes and opinions of persons and groups must not be assumed. They must be allowed to speak for themselves.
4. Cooperative thinking, planning and action are largely realized through skilled leadership.
5. Time spent in gathering facts will be time saved when data are needed upon which to base an understanding of needs.
6. Methods of cooperative action can be learned. Persons inexperienced in them should be placed in committee positions and given other assignments which will bring them into relationships with opportunities to acquire knowledge of cooperative methods.
7. All who are expected to have a part in executing a plan should be consulted in its formation.

8. If progress is to be real and permanent the community must do something for itself rather than have something done to it.
9. Community betterment cannot be achieved without expenditure of time, effort or money or a combination of these.
10. The community leader is indispensable but he should try to render himself not so.
11. Much leadership is latent. Some of it will emerge when given new and unexpected responsibilities.
12. The leader must work with the present, learn from the past and plan for the future.

SOME FACTORS IN COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP

Is community leadership something found among all the various degrees of economic, social, cultural and professional life? Or is it a quality which is the result of a background of achievements in life activities and an outcome rather than a goal? That there are persons occupying positions of leadership without leadership qualifications is certain. They account for the "mis-leaders" in leadership positions. Such occupancy is perhaps more frequent in governmental structure than in private enterprise. People have been too content to look upon government as something apart from them when they in fact are the government. As a result, training and qualifications have not been assigned the places where they are so badly needed. This is particularly true in relation to many executive positions in public service, which in America is not a career-service. Nor have citizens with good qualifications always sought membership on policy making bodies in public service. Competitive economic enterprise has produced a more efficient type of leadership suited to its purpose than have public affairs. The survival factor based on profit motives in private enterprise has had an important effect upon its leadership. Failure in private industry leadership is followed by economic loss and individual demotion or elimination. Failure in public service is less easy to detect and more extensively tolerated. It is often protected by tenure rights or civil service regulations. Personal integrity, education, training and a feeling of social

serviceship plus leadership qualities are fundamental in community leadership.

Much study and research is needed in the area of lay and professional community leadership. In a limited study of a selected city Smith found that men who were commonly recognized as community leaders in business, civic, social, philanthropic and religious fields had definite patterns of similarity in their social, economic and cultural backgrounds.¹ Further study is needed in the area of leadership qualities, methods of training leaders in specific fields, means of evaluating leadership, economic and social factors affecting leadership, selection of prospective leaders for training, and leadership attributes necessary to specific areas of endeavor. Positions which demand leadership abilities of an outstanding type must be placed on a higher level of economic return and social status if they are to attract the type of individuals needed in community service. This is true particularly in education, recreation and public administration.

EDUCATION FOR COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP

Education for community leadership divides itself into three considerations: first, training and experiences during primary, secondary and higher education which will assist all to a better understanding of the nature of community life and which will stimulate some to prepare for and to seek positions of leadership in community affairs; second, provision for training and guidance of those laymen who solicit or who are asked to assume responsibilities related to leadership on boards, councils or committees, or in functional areas; third, education for those who wish to prepare themselves professionally in general and specific areas of public service, health, welfare, adult education, rural life and recreation. Discussion related to some of these considerations is recorded previously in this chapter and also in Chapter VI. The purpose here is to point out some factors related to volunteer and professional personnel in group work and recreation.

¹ Smith, Christopher. "Social Selection in Community Leadership." *Social Forces*, May, 1937.

VOLUNTEER LEADERSHIP

Numerically, volunteers comprise by far the plurality of leadership over full-time and part-time professional workers in private recreation and youth-serving agencies. In general there is an inverse ratio between numbers of professional workers and numbers of volunteers; the agencies with the smallest number of professionals having the largest number of volunteers, and vice versa. It becomes, therefore, the responsibility of the professional to develop a partnership with the volunteer and to accept him as a colleague. During the last war there were in excess of twelve million volunteers active in various areas of health, welfare, recreation and social services in general. The place of the volunteer in the public recreation agency is no less important than in the private agency. Between the two agencies, however, there are differences in types of volunteer leaders, methods of selection, degree of responsibility, amount of supervision, plans for training and other considerations all related to agency purpose, services and methods of operation. Due to the varying nature of private recreation agencies they exhibit many more differences in the utilization of volunteers than exist among public recreation departments.

The significant attributes of volunteer leadership are related to lay participation as a function of citizenship in a democracy and to the richness and broadness of personalities, talents, experiences and community contacts which are made available to the agency, its program and membership. The volunteer has other contributions to make to the agency including new points of view, contacts with civic forces, opportunity for extended service and means of public interpretation. In return the professionals have definite responsibilities to the volunteer. They begin during the training of the professional worker.

Professional training should include materials related to philosophy, principles, methods, training, supervision and administration of volunteer leadership. Volunteer motivations, techniques of selection, skill in direction of volunteers and methods of integrating professional and volunteer efforts are necessary goals in professional education.

Some agency responsibilities to volunteer leadership are grouped as follows:

1. Development of staff services in the recruitment, training, placement and supervision of volunteers. This function may well be basic to the duties of one member of the professional staff and complementary to the functions of all members
2. Job analyses and job descriptions to determine and to advise the volunteer of the functions to be discharged. Too much dependence, however, should not be placed on this approach for what the volunteer does will often be determined by his personal skills and unique contribution to the agency program and membership. It may be necessary to fit the job to the volunteer
3. Training programs of an agency and a community-wide nature designed for volunteers and not composed merely of diluted materials used in the training of professionals
4. Development of an inter-agency central volunteer bureau in large cities to recruit, train and place volunteer leaders
5. Establishment and maintenance of standardized forms to record qualifications, service records and evaluation of services of volunteers
6. Adoption of a code of relationships, and adherence to it, between the professional and the volunteer, said code to be jointly developed
7. Stimulation of organization of community-wide associations of volunteer leaders
8. Development of a systematic plan of counselling and supervision whereby volunteers may have regular and continuous means of recourse and supervision

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN GROUP WORK

Professional education and in-service training most closely related to the material of this book are those in recreation and in group work. Opportunities for university and college preparation in these fields are to be found mainly in schools of social work and in recreation leadership training departments, and to a related degree in specialized curricula in physical education, art,

music, drama and agricultural education. Professional training for group work personnel in private agencies is given chiefly in schools of social work. Most group workers are employed in recreation agencies or in "informal" education agencies. University and college recreation leadership training departments prepare leaders and administrators for municipal and school recreation departments, national and state agencies, industrial concerns, hospitals, and private youth-serving agencies as well.

Professional education for leadership in group work agencies has suffered from the lack of a unified group work profession. Differentiations in purpose, program and technique among private agencies have led many of them to develop training suited to the characteristics of their respective agencies. Evidence today, however, shows that training for a common function is taking precedence over training for a particular agency. Agency orientation courses and in-service training are utilized as means of educating new entrants to the purpose and methods of the individual agency. The concept of professional education in group work has developed in the past thirty years to an extent not visioned by some early writers on professional education in social work. "The recreational classes present few difficulties because they do not involve any far-reaching consequences to the persons involved, and they can usually be organized to meet the needs of students as those needs develop."² Yet today the majority of workers in group work enter the profession without professional preparation.³

In devising training programs for group work personnel it is necessary, as in other fields, to determine what functions the worker is to perform. In the past the prospective worker's training has been largely in the area of group leadership, whereas in practice he has many functions related to the supervision and training of volunteers who are important leadership resources in all group work agencies.⁴ In one metropolitan area study it was found that of seventy-three full-time and sixty-eight part-

² *Proceedings National Conference Social Work*, 1915, p. 617.

³ Schindler, Annemarie. "Professional and In-Service Training for Group Work." *Proceedings National Conference Social Work*, 1945, p. 202.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 261.

time professional workers and 1504 volunteers, the latter accounted for over ninety-one percent of the total.⁵ The Associated Youth Serving Organizations (Boys' Clubs of America, Camp Fire Girls, Y.W.C.A., Girl Scouts, National Federation of Settlements, National Jewish Welfare Board, National Board Y.M.C.A.) as an aid to recruitment of prospective professional workers and to establishment of job classifications of positions common to youth serving organizations, have identified such positions with their qualifications in terms of personal qualities, education and experience.⁶ These organizations are now included in the Youth Division of the National Social Welfare Assembly. Positions listed are executive director, program director, program assistant, program aide, physical or health education director, swimming or aquatic director, and camp director. The purpose of these youth serving organizations is stated to be:

To help young people as individuals and as members of groups, understand themselves, their resources and liabilities; gain skill in personal relationships; make wise choices in life; develop and maintain health and physical fitness; develop avocational interests and skills; explore vocational opportunities; develop qualities of leadership; understand the world in which they live, and be concerned with its people and its problems; develop attitudes and skills which enable them to participate constructively as citizens in building a democratic society.⁷

It is also pointed out that the National Jewish Welfare Board, the Y.M.C.A. and the Y.W.C.A. require religiously motivated persons because of the religious purpose of these organizations. The Boys' Clubs of America hold that educational requirements stated are desirable but do not constitute a rigid requirement. Credit is given to competent, mature persons with demonstrated ability in boys' work and related fields.

The Welfare Council of New York City undertook a comprehensive study of personnel standards in private social group work

⁵ *A Survey of Private Recreation and Youth Services Agencies in Columbus and Franklin County*. Columbus: Council of Social Agencies, 1946, p. 97.

⁶ *Positions in Youth-Serving Organizations*. New York: Associated Youth Serving Organizations, Inc., 1945.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

and recreation agencies beginning in 1941.⁸ The study related to seventy-seven agencies of which forty-six were settlements and neighborhood houses, seventeen recreation agencies, and fourteen young people's associations. It was found that agencies exhibited wide differences in type and degree of requirements for given positions. College education was the qualification most generally demanded, while training in group work was least often a requirement. The most specific requirements related to training and experience were those of the young people's associations and the recreation agencies of a national program character. Over fifty percent of the workers in the seventy-seven agencies were men. Only nineteen workers, most of them associated with settlements and neighborhood houses, were graduates of schools of social work, although seventy-four others reported some study at such schools. Of 621 full-time professional workers reporting, one-half had graduate study. It was evident that in spite of private agency efforts to set standards in terms of graduate professional training in group work that in field practice but little had been accomplished.⁹ Of sixty-five full-time professional people in private recreation and youth services agencies in Columbus who reported, thirty-six had college degrees, twenty-five had some college training and four had no college work.¹⁰

Twenty-three schools provided specialized curricula in group work as of March, 1948. Twenty-one of them offer such training in schools of social work on the graduate level.¹¹ The Conference of Professional Schools of Recreation and Group Work was organized in January, 1943 by several institutions offering group work in schools of social work. Since that time the membership of the Conference has been broadened and it is now called the Conference of National Agencies and Schools of Group Work and Recreation. It is affiliated with the National Social Welfare Assembly and provides a means of relationship between national

⁸ *Personnel Standards in Social Group Work and Recreation Agencies*. New York: Welfare Council of New York City, 1944.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 52.

¹⁰ *A Survey of the Private Recreation and Youth Services Agencies of Columbus and Franklin County*, p. 101.

¹¹ *Member Schools of American Association of Schools of Social Work*. New York: American Association of Schools of Social Work, March, 1948.

agencies using group workers and schools preparing such personnel. While the Conference carries recreation in its title its membership is composed of the national agencies in the Youth Division of the Assembly and schools offering specializations in social group work. Basic content of professional education for group work practice has been outlined by the professional education committee of the American Association of Group Workers.¹²

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN RECREATION

Historical Backgrounds

The history of college training in recreation divides itself into fairly distinct periods.¹³ In 1909 a normal course in play was assembled by a group of pioneers in recreation and was extensively used in early training efforts. The Chicago Training School for Playground Workers was established in 1911. This year also saw the introduction of courses in recreation activities for the first time in colleges on the west coast, particularly in normal schools. A one year course of study was developed in 1916 by the People's Institute of New York City for the training of workers for community centers, social settlements and child welfare centers. During World War I the National Recreation Association operated a continuous training school for workers assigned to the War Camp Community Recreation Service. Harvard University in 1921 offered a course in community organization and administration of community centers, settlement houses and recreation departments. The National Recreation Association in 1926 established a one year post graduate training school for recreation leaders which continued until 1936. Experiences of the W.P.A. in the training of recreation personnel represent a milestone in the history of recreation training and significantly influenced college education in recreation. The First College Conference on Training Recreation Leaders held in December, 1937, was jointly sponsored by the W.P.A. Recreation Division and the University of Minnesota. This was followed by a second con-

¹² The *Group*, July, 1947.

¹³ Fitzgerald, Gerald B. "Trends in Recreation Training." *American Recreation Society Quarterly Bulletin*, June, 1948.

ference at the University of North Carolina in 1939, and a third conference at New York University in 1941. The reports of these conferences constitute excellent material in this field and remain today among leading documents in professional recreation education. A fourth national conference took place at New York University in January, 1948. The May, 1948, National Conference on Undergraduate Professional Preparation for Health Education, Physical Education and Recreation, in its recreation section was a fifth national conference.

From 1941 to 1946 recreation leadership training was very prominent in the personnel programs of the American Red Cross, the United Service Organizations, the Navy Welfare and Recreation Division and the Army Special Service Division. The post war period has brought renewed emphasis on college training in recreation with definite trends toward housing such training in a distinct division or separate department. It has also brought increased insistence by recreation agencies on professional recreation education as a prerequisite for employment in recreation.

Today more than twenty colleges and universities offer undergraduate specialized four-year curricula in recreation leadership and about eight or ten offer graduate degrees in recreation. Several studies have been made on the number of colleges providing professional training in recreation. In one of the earliest studies L. H. Weir of the National Recreation Association in 1925 identified bits and pieces of recreation training in well over one hundred institutions but found scarcely one that offered a four year undergraduate program. In 1927 the Russell Sage Foundation published a mimeographed bulletin listing 150 educational institutions and organizations offering training courses for leaders in a wide range of leisure-time interests. In the middle 1930's the National Recreation Association listed fifteen colleges that reported recreation as a major subject, but did not follow up to substantiate the claims. In a study conducted by the University of Minnesota in 1938 questionnaire returns from thirty colleges out of fifty selected ones revealed five which had definitely organized four year curricula. The National Recreation Association in 1939 in a questionnaire study found five colleges which reported majors in recreation. The University of Illinois in a 1947 study reported fifteen colleges as offering recreation majors.

The American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation in a 1947 study listed fourteen colleges in ten states which offer a Bachelor's degree with recreation as a major subject. In the fall of 1947 the National Recreation Association sent a questionnaire to the offices of the presidents of several hundred colleges asking that it be indicated whether the institutions offered a major in recreation, a minor in recreation, graduate recreation courses, or single courses in recreation leadership. Seventy-eight reported majors in recreation, 116 reported minors, thirty-three reported graduate majors and 166 reported single courses in recreation. The list of seventy-eight reporting majors was later reduced to twenty-four when supporting data were requested and examined.

Current Status

In a study conducted by the National Recreation Association in 1947 of 225 local public recreation executives, it was found that ninety-two percent had college degrees and twenty-six percent had graduate degrees. The most common fields of training for undergraduates were education, recreation, physical education and social sciences. Of those reporting graduate study 36.5 percent majored in recreation; 21 percent in health, physical education and recreation; 19.5 percent in education; and 23 percent in other areas, mostly liberal arts.

Administrative Setting

Administrative setting and administrative policies as applied to recreation curricula exhibit varied patterns. It is perhaps too early to indicate any one administrative plan as better than all others for to date a variety of existing practices indicates that specialized recreation curricula flourish under several plans. The following are examples.

For several years, the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill has offered an A.B. degree in recreation. In the fall of 1947, the University Board of Trustees established an All-University Division of Recreation, and designated a director, to coordinate the training of recreation personnel given by the three branches.

of the consolidated university, i.e., Chapel Hill, Women's College at Greensboro and State College at Raleigh. The Chapel Hill program is an inter-departmental structure involving primarily the departments of sociology and physical education. A six-man committee coordinates the training program and one of the committee acts as major adviser to the recreation students. The students enter the curriculum at the junior year. At Greensboro an A.B. degree is also granted in recreation. Again an inter-departmental plan is operative involving mainly the departments of sociology and physical education. The State College at Raleigh, a college of engineering and architecture, offers a B.S. degree in recreation. It is designed to train industrial recreation and rural recreation leaders. Graduate work leading to an M.A. in recreation is offered only at Chapel Hill.

The University of Minnesota in the fall of 1938 introduced a major and a minor curriculum in recreation. Administratively, the recreation curriculum operates as a division within the Department of Physical Education for Men. It has produced to date, some sixty-five majors, men and women, in recreation. A Master of Education degree with a major in recreation is offered at the graduate level. The following selection criteria have been established for those entering as freshmen in the four-year undergraduate curriculum:

1. Graduation from an accredited secondary school with a high school rank of the 40th percentile or above
2. Definite pattern of interest in areas related to recreation in the Strong Interest Test
3. Satisfactory profile on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory Test
4. Satisfactory results on the Ohio Psychological Test
5. Satisfactory personal interview
6. Satisfactory status in health examination

Further evaluation is made of each student before entrance to the upper division (junior and senior years) of the curriculum. This includes a minimum of a C average over all college work taken, a passing mark in a special recreation examination, a satisfactory health examination, evidence of leadership qualities as shown by extra-classroom experiences, a satisfactory personal

interview, and experience for at least one summer as a recreation leader or camp counsellor. Selection criteria have also been established for students who wish to transfer to the recreation major from other curricula and from other institutions. Master degree work in recreation is open to those holding Bachelor's degrees with a major in recreation, physical education, social work or other allied fields from accredited institutions. They must, however, make up any deficiencies in skill areas and recreation experience in addition to completing the program required for the Master's degree.

Indiana University in its School of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, organized in 1946, offers an example of recreation training in another type of administrative setting. The school has equal status with other professional schools of the institution. It is directed by a Dean and each of its three departments has a chairman. The School offers a B.S. degree, a M.S. degree, a Director's degree and a Doctor's degree in each of three fields—recreation, health and safety, and physical education. The Director's degree is an intermediate step between the Master's and the Doctor's degrees and is awarded to those successfully completing two years of graduate work in one of the three fields.

Other examples of administrative setting are afforded by the University of Wisconsin which offers recreation leadership training through an inter-college, inter-departmental arrangement with one major adviser for all recreation majors; by Springfield College which has a major in recreation and camping as a distinct curriculum among six curricula offered by the institution; and by the University of California at Berkeley which offers a Group Major in Recreation within the College of Letters and Science, with students assigned to advisers on the basis of their special interests in the fields of art, music, dramatic art, or physical education.

Institutions of higher education which desire to offer professional education in recreation seek a responsibility that cannot be adequately discharged with facility. Such education requires a competent faculty, student selection criteria, a specialized curriculum, a broad course offering, proper field training opportunities and constant evaluation and revision in the light of needs that

actually exist in communities. In addition, the college that maintains a varied pattern of good leisure opportunities for its total student body and which provides a recreation consultant service to communities will be in a strategic position to offer a more practical type of professional training based on laboratory experiences and on actual community situations. The number of institutions providing professional recreation curricula is increasing, however, both in the undergraduate and graduate categories. This trend is significant for it reflects recognition by universities and colleges that recreation is a specialized profession demanding specialized preparation, and that leisure is an expanding area of community life calling for leadership expertly prepared. At present it would appear that proper selection of prospective professional leaders and adequate training of them are as pressing problems as the increase in the availability of professional education opportunities in recreation.

Increased professional competence is a need shared alike by public and private agency recreation personnel. Neither type of personnel, as a group, is more wanting in this respect than the other. As indicated by Davis, observable differences in professional preparation, attitudes and abilities are readily found among recreation personnel but the existing deficiencies are as common to one type of agency as to the other.¹⁴

Accreditation and Certification

Accreditation of colleges offering professional education in recreation and certification of recreation personnel represent some next steps in this field. Accreditation of institutions offering group work training is simplified to the extent that such training is most often given by schools of social work accredited by the American Association of Schools of Social Work. There remains an important task in the accreditation of college recreation curricula. The leading professional recreation societies will have to take an active part in establishing such procedure.

Certification of recreation leaders has had some elementary beginnings in Minnesota, California, Pennsylvania and Indiana. The fact that recreation is a primary, secondary or incidental

¹⁴ Davis, *op. cit.*, p. 154.

function of such a wide variety of agencies raises a perplexing problem as to the proper identity of certifying bodies in the various states. Where state aid is provided for local recreation it is reasonable to assume that the authority granting the aid will set basic certification standards. In other cases certifying authorities may be designated in state recreation legislation. In Minnesota, for example, the general recreation enabling law of 1937 provides that "in all cases where school funds or property are utilized, the State Board of Education shall establish minimum qualifications of local recreational instructors and directors." No qualifications as yet have been set up for instructors or group leaders. However, pursuant to this clause the following qualifications were established in 1938 for full-time or part-time directors of recreation:

1. At least two years of college work
2. Specialized professional training in one or more of the fields specified below
3. At least three months practical experience in connection with recreation; or
a minimum of one year's experience as a salaried worker in one or more of the following fields:

Physical Education
Arts and Crafts
Music

Dramatics
Camping
Playground Activities

With full knowledge that these standards need revision, the certifying authority has under consideration a regulation requiring a four year college course with a major in recreation. This method of designating a certifying agency does not, of course, suffice for it is not applicable to municipal and county authorities, except very indirectly.

Park Executives

Twenty years ago Weir pointed out that no institution of higher learning offered a course or courses specifically for the training of park executives.¹⁵ The majority of park executives

¹⁵ *Parks, A Manual of Municipal and County Parks.* New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1928, Volume II, p. 536.

have come from the fields of landscape architecture, architecture, engineering, business administration and recreation. The training of executives for park work has been studied by the American Institute of Park Executives since 1920 at which time a committee was appointed to consider what should constitute appropriate methods and content in such training.

Today the typical park administrator must also be skilled in the human use concept of park properties. "The function of a municipal department is not solely to acquire, improve and maintain places of recreation but to organize the community for better recreation. The place is incidental to its use."¹⁶

The trend in small and middle-size communities is to combine in one position the jobs of recreation director and park administrator. Los Angeles, Detroit and Baltimore which have combined their recreation and park departments under one administration give evidence that such an arrangement will also affect large metropolitan areas. Thus college training curricula in recreation must give attention to at least the fundamentals of park planning, development and maintenance. Courses in landscape architecture and recreation areas and facilities will do much to satisfy this need.

A training course designed specifically for developing park executives has been in existence for many years at the New York State College of Forestry, Syracuse University. The need for several colleges or universities to provide this type of training is questionable for opportunities for this type of personnel are limited to large city park systems, county systems, and national and state parks and forests. In cooperation with a special committee on pre-service training appointed by the American Institute of Park Executives Syracuse University in 1946 expanded its park executive training program from four to five years.¹⁷ The Institute members agreed to provide summer jobs for junior and senior students in the curriculum, to assimilate

¹⁶ Hjelte, George. "Trends in Municipal Recreation." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1948.

¹⁷ Everly, Robert. "Training Executives for the Administration of Park and Recreation Departments." *Proceedings, Second Annual Great Lakes Park Institute*. Bloomington: School of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Indiana University, April, 1948. (Mimeo graphed)

graduates into their park systems, to make themselves available for lectures or seminars in the program and to recruit prospective park executives for the curriculum.

Specialized Training

An example of the beginning of a development in specialized training for specific recreation positions is represented by the efforts of the American Red Cross which in September, 1945 sponsored a national conference on the training of medical recreation workers at which time a suggested curriculum was devised to assist colleges in establishing adequate course content.¹⁸ In 1946 the Red Cross provided scholarships for twenty-five of its superior recreation personnel to study for one year at one of five different schools of social work specific courses related to hospital recreation.

Training for recreation specialization is a matter for the graduate level. Colleges preparing recreation leaders should plan together to determine which institutions are best equipped or most interested in equipping themselves to offer graduate study in certain recreation specializations. The desirability and the feasibility of every institution educating recreation personnel at the undergraduate level also being able to assemble the resources for advanced training in several such specifics are clearly open to challenge.

National Conferences on Professional Education

Recommendations of the recreation section of the National Conference on Undergraduate Professional Preparation for Health Education, Physical Education and Recreation should be carefully considered by all institutions of higher learning which prepare or plan to prepare professional personnel in recreation. The Conference was held at Jackson's Mill, Weston, West Virginia, May 16 to 27, 1948. It was financed by The Athletic Institute and sponsored by the following nine organizations: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recre-

¹⁸ Maxim, Marion A. "Professional Education for Medical Recreation Workers." *The Progressive Physical Educator*, December, 1947.

ation; American Recreation Society; American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education; American School Health Association; Athletic Institute; College Physical Education Association; National Association for Physical Education of College Women; National Recreation Association and Society of State Directors of Health and Physical Education. Approximately thirty additional national organizations or agencies acted as cooperating groups for the Conference, the purpose of which was to upgrade professional preparation in the three fields of recreation, health education and physical education.

The results of this Conference together with the recommendations of the First, Second, Third and Fourth National Conferences on College Training in Recreation represent present thinking in this field.

In-Service Training

In-service training, a traditional procedure directed toward increased efficiency of paid and volunteer recreation personnel, is practiced in a wide variety of settings. Some in-service training programs are more generic than others, particularly those which are offered through inter-agency cooperative plans, or by group work and recreation sections of councils of social agencies, or by professional societies. Others exhibit the opposite extreme in that they are geared to the personnel needs of an individual agency as viewed by the administrators, boards and training consultants of that agency. Both of these approaches have been applied to volunteer as well as to paid leadership. An outline of some current in-service training programs will indicate some trends in this type of effort to increase recreation leadership competence.

The Committee for the Study of Recreation in California in its report released in March, 1947, recommended, in part, that training opportunities for recreation leaders be expanded. The Committee with a grant of funds from the Rosenberg Foundation conducted a series of fourteen training institutes during a one year period.

A full-time director guided the training project which was based upon sponsorship by local committees composed of representatives of public and private agencies. Both paid and volunteer

leaders were included in the training plans. The first institute, the San Joaquin Area Recreation Institute, was held in April, 1947, three days a week for a three week period at the College of the Pacific at Stockton. The last, the Central Valley Recreation Institute, was held at Tulare in February, 1948. Several thousand employed and volunteer recreation personnel participated in the total series. Institute content was planned by the local committees and the training project director. Special lecturers and instructors were paid on a session basis and were recruited from the staffs of recreation and education agencies in the general locale of each institute. In some cases, college credit was allowed for successful completion of courses.

The project has already resulted in immeasurable gains for recreation in California and its benefits together with the work of the California Recreation Commission will continue to be felt throughout the communities of the state. Nationally, experiences and achievements of the California efforts will mean much to those concerned with in-service training in other states. When available, the summarized report of the institute project should be carefully studied.

The work of the recreation consultant of Indiana University in cooperation with professional recreation and park associations and local agencies is an example of another in-service training procedure. It indicates some real contributions that can be made by a college or university in this important aspect of recreation leadership. Training institutes are organized by the recreation consultant, who is Chairman of the Department of Recreation in the School of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, in co-operation with the University Division of Adult Education and Public Services, the Indiana Municipal Park and Recreation Association and local organizations. Registration, publicity and other related matters are handled by the Division of Adult Education and Public Services in its several centers throughout the state.

Typical of the training programs is the annual Great Lakes Park Training Institute, in which two national, one regional and six state professional societies in four states cooperate; institutes for camp counsellors and park naturalists; and training projects for local paid and volunteer recreation leaders. A training team

composed of specialists from the Chicago Park District has been extensively used in the institutes. Related to the over-all plan is the annual Governor's Conference on Recreation conducted by the Advisory Committee on Recreation of the Indiana Economic Council.

New York State, through the Committee on Training of the New York State Public Recreation Society, is planning to establish training institutes in fifteen to twenty communities which will serve as district training centers. The communities will be selected on the basis of: (1) interest of local recreation administrators who are willing to assume charge of local arrangements; (2) availability of physical facilities essential to a successful institute; and (3) geographical location favorable to easy access for persons from other communities. Personnel of the State Youth Commission will do the field organization work. Staff will be recruited from recreation agencies and colleges and universities. The over-all plan includes a week's course at one of the state teachers colleges during the early summer.

Staff services of the National Recreation Association are a key part of plans in many communities for in-service training. During February and March, 1948, for example, five training specialists were scheduled to conduct institutes in thirty-two different communities in nine states. The institutes ranged from three to twenty-one days in duration.

Excellent in-service training programs are stimulated and planned by state recreation authorities in several states. The North Carolina Recreation Commission has a long-range continuous plan for such training and other authorities such as the New Hampshire Recreation Department and the Vermont Recreation Board conduct like programs.

The Westchester County, New York, Recreation Commission in cooperation with the Recreation Executives Association of Westchester County inaugurated in April, 1948 an in-service recreation training school designed to permit participants to receive over a four year period training in eight skill areas, in recreation organization and administration and in camping. The program is open to recreation personnel in public and private agencies and to college students.

Leadership training for volunteers has its beginnings in col-

leges which offer professional education in recreation. In his preparation the prospective recreation professional should be educated in the philosophy of lay leadership in recreation and in the understanding that the lay leader exists in a variety of forms, such as an agency board member, a community recreation council member, a group leader, a campaign fund worker, and any individual who devotes a portion of his leisure to some aspect of community recreation. Professional education should include materials in philosophy, principles, methods, recruitment, selection, training, supervision, administration and separation of volunteers. Such understanding will better fit the professional to develop training courses for volunteers.

An example of consistent attention to volunteer competence is afforded by the program of the Volunteer Bureau, Incorporated, an agency in the St. Paul Community Chest, which annually conducts a city-wide training institute with the cooperation of local public and private agencies for lay persons recruited for service in those agencies.

Current Issues

Some of the issues currently involved in professional education in recreation relate to: (1) number and quality of institutions which should provide recreation training; (2) job analysis and qualification; (3) appropriate training for actual job duties; (4) methods of field work training; (5) cooperation between recreation managing authorities and staffs of professional training institutions; (6) differentiation between training in skills and training in supervision and administration; (7) research in methods and techniques of training; and (8) methods of recruitment and selection of prospective recreation leaders. Recreation as well as education must take its share of the upper ten percent of the 1,240,000 boys and girls graduated each year from high school.

The content of and methods in college professional curricula in recreation leadership have not been determined with any sense of finality among college professors, recreation executives and recreation leaders. They are constantly being studied, however, by standing committees on professional training of national rec-

recreation societies. They must be flexible enough to meet the changing needs of communities and to provide for the increasing numbers of relationships which recreation is encountering in community, state, national and world life. Nevertheless, there are certain definite goals which ought to be included in the education of professional recreation personnel. They are, among others:

1. Selection of the best possible types of persons to be trained in terms of personality development, health, intelligence, attitudes, aptitudes, and affinity for people
2. Attainment of a good background in general education
3. Attainment of proficiency in at least two major skill areas; in at least two minor skill areas; and appreciation of all recreation interests
4. Development of an understanding of the social significance of leisure and recreation and the philosophy and principles of leadership and recreation
5. Attainment of proficiency as a leader and organizer of recreation activities for individuals, groups and large gatherings
6. Attainment of ability to organize and administer community or agency recreation programs and to direct the work of a staff of recreation leaders
7. Attainment of proficiency in community organization for recreation including the ability to bring together into effective relationships public, private, voluntary and civic groups that have or should have an interest in the recreation affairs of their community
8. Attainment of the ability to organize and participate in training programs for volunteers, group leaders and professional personnel
9. Attainment of the ability to conduct studies in recreation, including recreation surveys
10. Development of an understanding of national, state and local government structure and laws as they affect the provision for and organization of recreation
11. Development of an understanding of human motivations, personality traits and individual differences
12. Attainment of the ability to direct the activity of volunteer leadership in all its phases

13. Development of an understanding of the place of recreation in the relationships of nations and on a world-wide basis
14. Development of an understanding of the group process and the relationships between the group and the individual
15. Attainment of a working knowledge of construction, development and maintenance of park and recreation areas and facilities
16. Development of an understanding of the nature and needs of rural life
17. Attainment of proficiency in public speaking
18. Attainment of a knowledge of the principles of camping and outdoor education

THE FUTURE

A final consideration relates to the need for greater public understanding and acceptance of the place of professional leadership in the leisure-time affairs of the community. Recruitment, training and placement of professional leaders have their effectiveness in the level of community understanding of the purposes and place of leadership. Higher salaries, greater security, more adequate recreation areas and facilities, longer professional careers and larger staffs are practical issues facing the recreation movement today. They must all be advanced in order that individuals in sufficient number and adequate competence may be attracted to and remain in the recreation profession. Truly these are important and primary needs demanding the attention of the layman and the professional in recreation.

SUGGESTED READINGS

Books

- Blumenthal, Louis H. *Administration of Group Work*. New York: Association Press, 1948.
- Bogardus, Emory S. *Leaders and Leadership*. New York: Appleton Co., 1934.
- Busch, Henry. *Leadership in Group Work*. New York: Association Press, 1934.
- Clark, Margaret L. and Teall, Briseis. *The Executive Director on the Job*. New York: The Woman's Press, 1947.

- Cooperative Principles and Practices.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Department of Supervision and Directors of Instruction, Eleventh Yearbook, 1939.
- Coyle, Grace. *Group Experience and Democratic Values.* New York: The Woman's Press, 1947.
- Liebman, Joshua L. *Peace of Mind.* New York: Simon and Schuster, 1946.
- Lindenberg, Sydney J. *Supervision in Social Group Work.* New York: Association Press, 1939.
- Link, Henry C. *The Rediscovery of Man.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1938.
- Loomis, Clarence B. *An Experience in Community Development and the Principles of Community Organization.* Clayton, Georgia: The Rabun Press, 1944, pp. 170-182.
- Lynd, Helen Merrill. *Field Work in College Education.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1945.
- Morgan, John J. B. *Keeping A Sound Mind.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1938.
- Reeder, Ward G. *School Boards and Superintendents.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1944.
- Sanderson, Dwight. *Leadership for Rural Life.* New York: Association Press, 1940.
- Tead, Ordway. *Democratic Administration.* New York: Association Press, 1945.
- *The Art of Leadership.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1935.
- Trecker, Harleigh B. *Group Process in Administration.* New York: The Woman's Press, 1947.
- *Social Group Work—Principles and Practices.* New York: The Woman's Press, 1948.
- Weir, L. H. Editor. *Parks—A Manual of Municipal and County Parks.* New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1928. Vol. II, Chapter 20.

ARTICLES

- "Are We Ready for Personnel Standards in Recreation?" *Youth Leaders Digest*, March, 1947.
- Cole, S. G. "Workshop for Urban Community Leadership." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, May, 1945.
- Cologne, R. "Training Workers for Community Service." *Adult Education Bulletin*, June, 1945.
- Cooke, Lewis H. and Cope, Quill E. "Rating School Board Members." *Nations Schools*, February, 1938.

- Dyer, Don. "Recreation, A Growing Profession." *Bulletin No. 2, Vol III*, Wisconsin Recreation Association, January 30, 1948.
- "Education and Training for Park Work." *Planning and Civic Commitment*, October-December, 1947.
- Everly, Robert E. "Training Executives for the Administration of Park and Recreation Departments." *Proceedings of Second Annual Great Lakes Park Training Institute*. Bloomington: School of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Indiana University, April, 1948.
- Frank, Glenn. "Citizenship Leadership in Today's Leisure." *Recreation*, February, 1938.
- Fitzgerald, Gerald B. "Trends in Recreation Training." *American Recreation Society Quarterly Bulletin*, June, 1948.
- Gloss, G. M. *Recreational Research*. Baton Rouge: J. E. Ortlieb Printing Co., 1940.
- Goodykoontz, B. "Leadership in the Coordination of Social Agencies." *Curriculum Journal*, October, 1942.
- Hofer, J. R. "An Activity Analysis of the Duties of Recreation and Informal Education Leaders and Supervisors." *Research Quarterly*, March, 1944.
- "How Can We Stimulate Cooperation?" *Community Coordination*, May-June, 1941.
- Judy, Mary E. and Rich, Wilmer S. "Finding and Using the Volunteer." *Proceedings National Conference of Social Work*, 1945.
- King, Clarence. "Social Agency Boards and How to Serve on Them." *Survey Midmonthly*, November, 1937 and December, 1937.
- Maxim, Marion A. "Professional Education for Medical Recreation Workers." *The Progressive Physical Educator*, December, 1947.
- Nelson, Lowry. "Planning and Organizing Cooperative Community Projects." *Social Education*, February, 1943.
- "Professional Education for Group Work Practice." *The Group*, June, 1947.
- "Recreation Salaries." *Recreation*, May, 1948.
- Rede, Fritz. "Fitting Training Courses to Individual Needs." *The Group*, May, 1943.
- Romney, G. Ott. "Whose Pretty Girl Are You?" *The Progressive Physical Educator*. May, 1947.
- Schindler, Annemarie. "Professional and In-Service Training for Group Work." *Proceedings National Conference of Social Work*, 1945.
- Shepard, William P. "The Professionalization of Public Health." *American Journal of Public Health*, Part II, Vol. XXXVIII, No. 1, January, 1948.

- Smith, Christopher. "Social Selection in Community Leadership." *Social Forces*, May 1937.
- Thompson, T. W. "What is a Park Superintendent?" *The Recreation Review*, Parks and Recreation Association of Canada, Niagara Falls, Ontario, July, 1947.
- "Training of Recreation Personnel." *Proceedings Fifty-First Annual Convention*. American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1946.
- Weckwerth, Charles F. "Recreation Comes of Age." *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, May, 1948.
- Wittich, W. J. "Postwar Problems in Teacher Education With Reference to Recreation." *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, January, 1947.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

- A Guide to Community Coordination*. Los Angeles: Coordinating Council, Inc., 1941.
- A Survey of the Private Recreation and Youth Services Agencies of Columbus and Franklin County*. Columbus: Council of Social Agencies, 1946.
- Anderson, Jackson. *The Development of Personnel Standards for Leadership Duties in Public Recreation*. (Unpublished Doctorate Thesis, New York University, 1948.)
- Board and Staff Relationships*. New York: American Association for Group Work, 1940.
- Charters, W. W. and Fry, Vaughn W. *The Ohio Study of Recreation Leadership Training*. Columbus: Bureau of Educational Research, Mimeograph No. 2, 1942.
- College Training Courses for Recreation Leaders*. New York: National Recreation Association, 1942.
- Corwin, G. and Layton, R. *Introduction to Leadership*. New York: Association Press, 1943.
- Conference on Training Resources for Hospital Recreation Workers*. Washington, D. C.: American Red Cross, September, 1945.
- De Marche, D. F. *Camp Leadership Courses for Colleges and Universities*. Chicago: American Camping Association, 1947.
- Haller, Ruth. *Planning Your Meeting*. New York: National Publicity Council, 1944.
- Institutions Giving Professional Training in Health, Physical Education and Recreation*. Washington, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1948.
- Leadership in Church Recreation Programs*. Chicago: Chicago Recreation Commission, 1945.

- Leadership of Girl Scout Troops.* New York: Girl Scouts, 1943.
- Leadership Training in the Jewish Center.* New York: National Jewish Welfare Board, 1943.
- Moller, Elsie J. *Some Pointers on Supervision.* New York: Woman's Press, 1942.
- Personnel Standards in Social Group Work and Recreation Agencies.* New York: Welfare Council of New York City, 1944.
- Pittman, Anne M. *A Survey of Professional Curricula for the Training of Recreation Leaders.* Austin: Department of Physical Education Training for Women, University of Texas, 1947.
- Positions in Youth-Serving Organizations.* New York: Associated Youth Serving Organizations, Inc., 1945.
- Problems Confronting Boards of Education.* Albany: New York State Education Department, 1944.
- Program of the National Training School for Professional Leaders.* New York: Boy Scouts of America, 1947-48.
- Recreation.* Occupational Abstract No. 90. New York: Occupational Index, Inc., New York University, February, 1946.
- Recreation Leadership as a Career.* Chicago: Institute of Research, 1941.
- Recreation Leadership Courses in Colleges and Universities.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1948.
- Recreation Leadership Standards.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1948.
- Recreation Workers.* Occupational Brief No. 90. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1945.
- Report of College Conference on Training Recreation Leaders.* Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1938.
- Report of Kentucky Recreation Curriculum Conference.* Frankfort: Division of Recreation, October, 1947.
- Report of Second National Conference on the College Training of Recreation Leaders.* Minneapolis: Farnham Printing and Stationery Co., 1939.
- Report of Eighth Annual January Recreation Institute.* New York: New York University, January, 1948.
- Report of Third National Conference on the College Training of Recreation Leaders.* New York: New York University, 1941.
- Small Town Manual for Community Action.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Commerce, Government Printing Office, 1942.
- So You Are a School Board Member.* Springfield: Illinois Association of School Boards, 1944.

- The How of Functioning Through Committees.* Washington, D. C.: Work Projects Administration, 1940.
- Toward Professional Standards.* New York: American Association of Group Workers, 1947.
- Training for Recreation.* Ann Arbor: Dorothy I. Cline, 1939.
- Training Volunteers for Recreation Service.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1946.
- Training Your Playground Leaders.* New York: National Recreation Association, 1945.
- Volunteers in Recreation.* Washington, D. C.: The Office of Civilian Defense, February, 1942.
- Weckwerth, Charles F. *Summary of Results of Current Practices in the Recruitment, Selection and Placement of Colleges and Universities Preparing Recreation Leadership.* Springfield: Springfield College, June, 1948.
- Your Opportunity in a Youth Serving Organization.* New York: Youth Division, National Social Welfare Assembly, 1947.

APPENDIX

Organization for Recreation in Australia, Canada and Great Britain —

AUSTRALIA

The community center movement is making great strides in Australia. Rather than developing as part of a centrally organized plan advocated and stimulated by a national agency it has the appearance of a spontaneous development which finds its roots in awareness of common needs and in the fellowship born of war time experiences. It is a people's movement varying in intensity and methods of application according to the individual community. Nationally, the Community Center Division of the Ministry of Post War Construction; the National Fitness Organization; and the Free Library Movement are all interested in furtherance of local centers for recreation and social and civic participation. Much of the desire for greater community activity has sprung from the widespread provision for care of the pre-school child as evidenced by the many children's health centers, nursery schools and kindergartens throughout Australia. The community center movement is not pointed solely toward recreation opportunities but in the direction of increased community activity of all types related to the health, welfare, education and recreation needs of the people. Locally, city councils, community councils, industry, voluntary groups and civic organizations are engaged in countless projects related to the social and recreation needs of their respective communities. Stress is placed upon playgrounds in congested areas, community center buildings, playing fields and community forests. Natural, economic and social advantages of community forests are emphasized as a specific need in Australia where but one percent of the land is given over to permanent forests in contrast to 44.7 percent in Russia, 27.7 percent in

Germany, 59.5 percent in Japan, 19.2 percent in France, 24.7 percent in Norway, 5.4 percent in Great Britain and 33 percent in the United States.¹

Playing fields, playground shelter buildings and parks are maintained by many municipal councils. Libraries are often located next to playgrounds directed by paid leaders.

The Australian Commonwealth Housing Commission in its final report of August 25, 1944 made the following recommendation:

We consider it most important to emphasize that, although recreation and social activity should be stimulated and assisted by a central organization, the motive force and the responsibility for organization must rest with the people of the locality concerned.

The national government has authorized limited financial assistance to stimulate professional training in recreation and physical education.² Some of the funds also are available for camps, youth hostels, boys' and girls' clubs and for encouragement of industrial recreation and playground areas. A national youth committee works with official government agencies to interpret needs and desires of young people in recreation. Opportunities for personnel training have been meager but are steadily increasing due to school and community demand for adequate leadership. Regional and district recreation associations and physical education societies are beginning to appear and there is also a movement in progress designed to develop a national physical fitness and recreation act.

New Zealand is also expanding provision for the leisure life of its people. In 1937 the Physical Welfare and Recreation Act was passed to "encourage the establishment of recreation centres where social and cultural activities are linked with those of sport . . . and thus introduce in our community life that fine practice of older days when youth and their elders assembled together to enjoy their recreation periods."

¹ *The Community Can Do It.* Sydney: Australia Broadcasting Company, May, 1945.

² Gloss, G. M. "Our Australian Neighbors." *Journal of Health and Physical Education.* June, 1947.

CANADA

The Dominion Government of Canada is seeking to develop and enlarge the interest in and provision for recreation throughout the country. A division of physical fitness and recreation functions as a part of the Department of National Health and Welfare. It works with the National Council on Physical Fitness which includes representatives from each of the provinces. A National Physical Fitness Act was adopted in July, 1943, creating both the division of physical fitness and the National Council. The Act states:

It shall be the duty of the Council to promote the physical fitness of the people of Canada and in the performance of such duty it may (a) assist in the extension of physical education in all educational and other establishments; (b) encourage, develop and correlate all activities relating to physical development of the people through sports, athletics and other similar pursuits; (c) train teachers, lecturers and instructors in the principles of physical education and physical fitness; (d) organize activities designed to promote physical fitness and to provide facilities therefore; and (e) cooperate with organizations . . . engaged in the development of physical fitness in the amelioration of physical defects through physical exercise.³

In developing provisions of the Act much stress is placed upon recreation programs and upon leadership education in recreation, community organization, and physical education.

The Act provides for financial assistance to provinces which establish an organization for the purpose of cooperating with the Council in carrying out provisions of the Act. The amount of financial aid in any one year is limited to a sum which bears the same proportion to the sum of \$225,000 as the population of the province bears to the population of Canada, or to an amount equal to one-half of the funds expended by the province in carrying out provisions of the Act, whichever is less. The functional organization for developing the recreation and physical fitness

³ *An Act to Establish a National Council for the Purpose of Promoting Physical Fitness*. Ottawa: Edmond Coulter, 1943.

program is a responsibility of the province and its communities. The national bureau acts as a resource and provides consultation service. It assembles and distributes information on recreation, community centers, physical education and allied fields and also carries on research in a variety of areas as well as stimulates leadership training opportunities and cooperation among national agencies and organizations in recreation and physical education. The National Council is chaired by the director of the recreation and physical fitness division and meets semi-annually. Between meetings a continuous study of various problems is carried out by committees of the Council. A major program advocated by the Council is an annual summer camp for the more than two million children in Canada between the ages of five and fourteen years. Ontario is the province which has taken the lead in the camp program. Several of the provinces have established their recreation and physical education councils on a basis similar to the organization of the National Council.

Increased federal grants in Canada to provincial governments and through them to local communities for the development of physical fitness and recreation pursuant to the National Physical Fitness Act passed during the war are being advocated by youth councils, community groups and national planning boards. Provincial governments have indicated that material aid to recreation, and particularly financial grants to communities, through their auspices will largely depend upon grants from the Dominion Government.

All of the provinces now grant various types of assistance to localities to further recreation. Nova Scotia assists communities in leadership training and in planning of buildings and programs. As of April, 1947, five cities in Nova Scotia employed full-time recreation directors and twenty communities had plans to build community centers. This province conducted an extensive community recreation leadership training course in Halifax from July, 1946, to May, 1947, under provisions of the Canadian Vocational Training Act. Saskatchewan adopted a physical fitness act in April, 1944, which included establishment of a council on physical fitness and recreation. This body provides guidance and stimulation for the development of community recreation programs through its central office and through field representatives.

In this province the community center plan is being developed in the light of interest in recreation, adult education and the rural cooperative movement. In 1946 organized recreation systems existed in seven counties ranging in population from 1,500 to 58,000. They were under the administration of recreation boards or councils and were directed, in the main, by trained leaders. Several additional cities lacked programs only because of a dearth of qualified leaders. The Saskatchewan physical fitness and recreation council periodically publishes excellent materials on recreation for the guidance of community recreation councils and groups. New Brunswick is approaching its recreation problems through the planning of some fifty regional high schools designed for community use as well as conventional education for children. The school buildings are planned to include an auditorium, a gymnasium, a school library, a regional library, a cafeteria, club rooms, shops, visual aid facilities and other recreation facilities including large outdoor play areas. The provincial government is paying for forty percent of the building cost and for fifty percent of the cost of equipment and provides expert architectural and engineering services as an aid to local communities. British Columbia is interested in cooperation between community leaders and social workers as a part of the community center movement giving attention to the needs of low income groups. Most of its several score community centers are under private auspices. A lesser number of localities support recreation programs of a public classification.

Ontario passed a Community Halls Act in 1920 and revised it in 1937. Its purpose was to help rural communities to finance erection of a community hall with adjoining play space. Towns could also secure assistance under the Act if the facilities to be erected would be of benefit to people in surrounding areas outside the town. Grants could not exceed twenty-five per cent of the cost of the hall or the cost of the play field and the total grant was limited to \$2,000. Much activity was carried on under the Act up to the depression of 1931. In 1934 appropriations authorized by the Act were entirely discontinued to be resumed on a limited basis in 1937. Over seventy-five cities in Ontario have community recreation programs and half of them employ full-time directors.

The Ontario Department of Education in support of commu-

nity programs of physical fitness and recreation provides annual grants to local communities. This arrangement is not a part of the Dominion plan but a development of the provincial government of Ontario which in 1947 adopted a recreation act of its own. Every municipal council which operates a community physical fitness and recreation program may receive grants-in-aid, if the program is in charge of a local committee; is conducted on a non-profit basis; and is approved in content, facilities and leadership, both paid and voluntary, by the Minister of Education. The municipal council must appoint a local committee of two or more persons to be in charge of the program and must appoint a director and such full-time and part-time assistant directors as it may deem necessary. Salary grants are available to pay one-third of the director's salary, with the maximum grant \$1,000; and to pay one-third of the salaries of full-time or part-time assistant directors, with the number of assistant directors to receive grants to be determined by the Minister of Education. The maximum amount to be paid in the case of an assistant director is \$500. Grants are also available to pay twenty percent of the approved maintenance and operating costs of the community program with the proviso that such grants shall not exceed \$400. The total annual grant to any one community program is not to exceed \$3,500. With the approval of the Minister of Education any organization which conducts a non-profit camp for children and adults is eligible for a grant of fifty percent of the actual cost of transportation of campers and camp leaders to and from camp, with the grant not to exceed one dollar for each person. The Minister of Education may also approve an annual grant not to exceed \$1,000 to any organization which conducts recreation for children or adults and which is not eligible for the above mentioned salary and maintenance grants.

In 1946 Manitoba enacted a provincial physical fitness and recreation act of broad scope. Community organization for recreation is approached through the formation of community recreation councils which in turn approach their task through two avenues, the school and the community. To facilitate their work the local councils often work through subcommittees on leadership, program, facilities, and finance. In 1947 Manitoba had full-time recreation leadership in six cities in addition to Winni-

peg and community centers manned by volunteers or part-time leaders were to be found in a score of other communities.

Alberta for some years has aided communities with grants for the salaries of community leaders and for leadership training programs. Its provincial recreation program began in 1938 and in 1944 was integrated with the National Physical Fitness Act.⁴ In 1946 Alberta passed in its legislative assembly a "Cultural Development Act" the purpose of which is related to the "encouragement, coordination, expansion, and development of different aspects of the cultural life of the Province, and in particular, library facilities in both urban and rural districts, music, art, drama, handicrafts and physical recreation." Any community in Alberta may participate in the recreation program provided that it organizes a representative sponsoring committee. Assistance in organizing these local groups is given by the provincial office, upon request. Costs of the recreation program are shared by the Dominion Government, the Provincial Government and the local community. The first two share the costs of administration, leadership training, salaries of leaders conducting authorized groups, leaders' manuals, supervision and leadership conferences. The local community provides group meeting places and pays for maintenance of facilities and for the net cost of equipment supplied from the provincial recreation office. In January, 1947, recreation leaders were operating programs in 366 centers in sixty Alberta communities. The recreation program is administered by the Health and Recreation Branch of the Alberta Department of Education.

Canada is stressing the construction and development of community centers as war memorials. Much of the present interest is an outgrowth of war experiences related to unity of action, inadequate housing, national consciousness, and recreation needs. Three ingredients are advanced as essential to successful community center enterprises. First, the center must be planned to serve the needs of all the people; it must be non-sectarian and non-party. Second, professional people trained in community organization are necessary to allow laymen to secure the most from common effort. Third, community councils are suggested as a necessary

⁴ *Health and Recreation Branch*. Calgary: Alberta Department of Education, 1947.

prerequisite to the development of a community center. Those procedures for the development of community centers in Canada constitute good principles of community organization for recreation. The importance of planning, surveys, community councils, democratic administration, community needs, professional guidance and lay participation is given full consideration. The community center is held to be related to the needs of unity, strengthening democracy, planned and creative leisure, cultural growth, social life for returning servicemen, juvenile delinquency and war memorials.

In summary, it should be pointed out that recreation developments in Canada are in an era of constant and sometimes swift change, particularly with respect to community organization patterns involving relationships between the Dominion government and the provinces and between the provinces and local communities. The Physical Fitness Act of 1943 has proved to be too limited in scope and consideration is being given to the adoption of a national Recreation Act and creation of a National Recreation Council.

GREAT BRITAIN

On July 3, 1891, during the reign of Queen Victoria, Parliament passed the Museums and Gymnasiums Act. Locally the provisions of the Act could be adopted by a resolution passed at a meeting of the urban authority. The Act provided that: "An urban authority may provide museums for reception of antiquities or other objects of interest, and gymnasiums with all the apparatus ordinarily used therewith and may erect any buildings, and generally do all things necessary for the provision and maintenance of such museums and gymnasiums." The Act also stipulated that the gymnasium must be open to the public free of charge at least two hours a day five days a week; that the exclusive use of the gymnasium could be granted for not more than two hours per day to any person or group for gymnastic exercises upon payment of a fee; that for not more than twenty-four days in the year nor more than six consecutive days the gymnasium could be closed as such and the building be rented or given free to any person for the purpose of a lecture, exhibition,

public meeting, entertainment or other public purpose; and that the urban authority could appoint and pay such officers and servants as it deemed necessary including instructors in connection with the gymnasium.

The next act to have significant influence on provision for recreation opportunities under public auspices was the Education Act of 1921 which gave local education authorities power to provide community centers for young persons and persons over the age of eighteen attending educational institutions. The Act also provided for a fifty percent grant from the National Board of Education for erection of local youth centers or youth sections of community centers.

The Physical Training and Recreation Act, 1937, adopted by the British Parliament is described as: "An Act to provide for the development of facilities for, and the encouragement of, physical training and recreation, and to facilitate the establishment of centres for social activities."⁵ All local authorities were authorized to erect community centers. Two National Advisory Councils for Physical Training and Recreation, one for England and Wales and the other for Scotland, previously in existence, were continued under the Act. The National Councils were authorized to establish local committees consisting of representatives of education authorities and voluntary organizations and individuals possessing special knowledge and experience for the purpose of carrying out programs of physical fitness and recreation. Later the Education Act of 1944 abolished these committees. The 1937 Act authorized the National Board of Education to make grants to local authorities or voluntary organizations for the provision and equipping of gymnasiums, playing fields, swimming baths, bathing places, holiday camps and camping sites, and other buildings and premises for physical training and recreation; and for the training and supply of teachers and leaders. Grants also were authorized to any national voluntary organization having recreation objectives, the grant to be in respect to an organization's total program or to any specific branch of it. The Board of Education was also empowered to disseminate information related to physical training and recrea-

⁵ *Physical Training and Recreation Act, 1937.* London: H. M. Stationery Office.

tion. Local authorities were empowered to acquire, equip, and maintain all types of recreation areas and facilities and to allow all varieties of groups and organizations to use them with or without cost. Local authorities were authorized financially and otherwise to assist other local authorities or voluntary organizations in providing recreation facilities within the area of the contributing authority. The Act also served to allow local education authorities to provide recreation programs for all age groups, whereas previously under the Education Act of 1921 they could provide for those over eighteen only if they were attending school. The National Board of Education under the 1937 Act was authorized to maintain one or more national colleges of physical training and recreation to develop leaders. Local authorities were empowered to train and employ leaders in order to assure effective use of facilities for recreation.

The Education Act of 1944 which represented widespread reforms in publicly supported education in Great Britain, provided that: "It shall be the duty of every local education authority to secure the provision for . . . leisure-time occupation, in such organized cultural training and recreative activities as are suited to their requirements, for any persons over compulsory school age who are willing and able to profit by the facilities provided for that purpose."⁶

Great Britain is approaching its problem of leisure opportunities to an extent through advocacy of community centers. Proponents of the center plan acknowledge that what they have in mind exists only in the experimental stage at present and that many established social centers possess some of its characteristics but differ in purpose. The Education Act of 1944 has been interpreted by the British government as authorizing local education authorities to provide community centers to promote the social and physical training and recreation of the community, without prejudice to the power of other local authorities under the Physical Training and Recreation Act of 1937 to provide centers for athletic, social or educational activities. In accordance with this view the Ministry of Education prepared and released a report in 1944 on community centers. The report states:

⁶ *Education Act, 1944*. London: H. M. Stationery Office, p. 32.

To a great extent the centres already in existence owe their origin to unhealthy social conditions. The early settlements established in the poorer quarter of towns were in some measure a social palliative. But the result of our enquiry has been to convince us that a community centre should be regarded as an essential amenity of a normal community living in normal circumstances. We have reached the conclusion that what may have been no more than desirable in the past will become urgently necessary after the war. In the words of one of our witnesses— “The great need . . . is for ample and congenial premises where men and women especially of the lower income groups, can afford to spend their leisure, create their own social life and develop their own potentialities. . . . There is a dearth of meeting places which are, *in practice*, equally available to all.”⁷

The committee which prepared the report was bothered by the question of the feasibility of limiting the community center to the exclusive use of adults with youths under eighteen being excluded because they tend to “enjoy themselves boisterously” and “both cannot enjoy themselves at the same time in the same place.” A compromise was adopted which provides that “youth centres may be closely linked with community centres and may conveniently share parts of the same building, but the independence of both should be preserved.” The committee further recommended that:

1. Facilities for leisure use should be regarded as a necessary part of the educational system
2. A village hall should be provided wherever the population exceeds 400
3. Interested voluntary groups should be consulted whenever a proposal is made for a new center
4. Local education authorities should be generally responsible for financing center construction and maintenance and leadership salaries
5. The question of serving alcoholic beverages should be for the community to decide
6. Public funds should not be granted to national or local voluntary organizations to finance community centers because adult education and youth services are already largely administered

⁷ *Community Centres*. London: Ministry of Education. H. M. Stationery Office, 1944, p. 5.

by local education authorities and that to develop community centers separately would be poor coordination

7. Public funds should be granted to voluntary organizations for non-local purposes

Upon release of the Ministry of Education committee report on community centers an admonition was promptly recorded by a leading London newspaper. Its reproduction here is useful as it denotes both understanding and misunderstanding of good principles of organization for recreation.

Official plan for community centres after the war, published today, will be useful if its promoters keep in mind that they should be provided only where needed. The official reference to "technique of social living" sounds like something straight out of Whitehall. Any scheme seeking to foist regimented social behavior upon people will fail.

Highly progressive councils have set an example by their enterprising provision for open-air and indoor recreation and entertainment. Others might follow. There ought to be decent premises where clubs and organizations of all kinds can meet inexpensively. They scarcely need special centres with paid wardens and fussy superintendents.⁸

Voluntary organizations in Great Britain have been and are prominent in the development of community centers. The ones whose work is most significant are the National Council of Social Service, the British Association of Residential Settlements, the Educational Settlements Association and the Miners' Welfare Commission.

The National Council of Social Service

Organized in 1919, one of the purposes of the National Council of Social Service is to promote community activity in both town and country. "For the past twenty years it has been the aim of the National Council of Social Service and its associated Rural Community Councils, with help of grants and loans made available by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and H. M. Development Commission, to provide and improve village halls in villages

⁸ *London Star*. December 22, 1944.

with a population not exceeding 4,000, in order to secure adequate premises of good design and sound construction in which village activities can take place. The essence of the scheme is a village club to which everyone goes irrespective of creed, political opinion or social status, where discussion is free and the communal life and culture can express itself.”⁹ Before the war about 1,000 village halls were affiliated to the Council and 500 local committees had received assistance from it. The Council granted one-sixth of the cost of a village hall and financed a further one-third by loan. In some cases the grant amounted to one-third of the cost. In 1929 a joint committee was formed from the National Council of Social Service, the British Association of Residential Settlements and the Educational Settlements Association. It was called the New Estates Community Committee and its purpose was to stimulate people in large new housing developments to organize to meet common needs. The Committee encouraged development of community centers and community councils with paid secretaries. An allocation of \$40,000 was received from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust to assist in defraying the salaries of council secretaries over a five year period. In 1939 the Committee’s membership was widened to include representatives of local and national authorities and of local community councils. The National Council of Social Service appointed a field secretary to work with the Committee. In 1937 the community center movement was greatly stimulated by passage of the National Physical Training and Recreation Act and the Committee changed its name to the Community Centres and Associations Committee and appointed four field secretaries. The Council organized a national conference on community centers in 1943 which was attended by over six hundred delegates of whom half were from local authorities. The Council in 1942 was active in eighty-eight community centers of which forty-nine were provided by local authorities and thirty-nine by voluntary organizations. All districts served by these centers had a total population of 797,500 and it was estimated that 65,650 people were directly reached by the center activities. In addition over one hundred

⁹ *Village Halls and Social Centres in the Countryside*. London: The National Council of Social Service, Inc., 1945.

other community associations having no center buildings were in contact with the Council.

In June, 1945 the Ministry of Education outlined the following procedure with reference to the National Council of Social Service in the light of the new Education Act of 1944:

The National Council of Social Service will continue to assist the provision of Village Halls in rural communities of not more than 4,000. This assistance will take the form of grants and interest-free loans from funds provided by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and the Development Commission respectively. Grants under the Physical Training and Recreation Act will not normally be available towards the capital cost of proposals eligible for assistance through the National Council of Social Service.¹⁰

The Council advocates a series of principles of planning for community centers which includes reservation of adequate land in all rural planning programs for recreation on or near a site which should be set aside for erection of a village social center; cooperation between local authorities and voluntary organizations interested in recreation; cooperation of local bodies with county or regional authorities in order to relate village needs to nearby large town recreation facilities; and cooperation between villages in joint planning and joint provision for recreation. The importance of permanent and adequate areas and facilities for recreation is stressed by the Council in these words:

Most villages in the past have been too ready to rest content with an arrangement under which a local landowner or farmer has allowed cricket and football to be played in a corner of his park or on a pasture field. Facilities of this kind, though generous, are unsatisfactory. They are liable to be terminated at short notice. . . . The only safe course for every village to follow is to secure the permanent control of a suitable site. . . .¹¹

The British Association of Residential Settlements

A number of settlements joined together in 1920 to form the British Association of Residential Settlements. In 1945 there

¹⁰ Circular 51. London: British Ministry of Education, June 15, 1945.

¹¹ *Village Halls and Social Centres in the Countryside*, p. 15.

were fifty-five settlements affiliated with the Association. They are of three types: university settlements; non-university settlements; and provincial settlements which are somewhat similar to community centers. The university settlements have a tradition of adult education while the non-university settlements stress attention to club activities for children and youth. The Association stresses the need for professional counsel in developing community centers in new housing developments.

The Educational Settlements Association

British educational settlements were founded on a plan to promote adult education through permanent centers for leisure-time study and residential centers for full-time study. The Educational Settlements Association was formed in 1920, and in 1927 it was approved by the government as a responsible body under the adult education regulations. Opportunities to share in the management of the center are considered by the Association to be as much a part of adult education as class attendance. The educational settlement attempts to provide for the adult what the school does for the child. Good environment, standards of conduct, social and personal development, and acquisition of skills are encouraged. At present about thirty such institutions exist in Great Britain. They are financed partly by local public funds, by student projects, student fees, donations and grants. Between 700 and 800 students are considered to constitute the right size group for an educational settlement. Activities in addition to academic adult education include art, music, drama, dancing, camping and all types of hobbies and other recreation interests.

The Miners' Welfare Commission

The purpose of the Miners' Welfare Commission is to provide facilities for leisure-time pursuits in mining communities. The plans vary greatly according to individual communities. Most of them are in the hands of Miners' Welfare Trustees, a few are administered by local authorities. Facilities vary from modern community centers to a small building little more than a shed. A bar-room for men only is a major feature of all plans. Adjoining

halls are used by both men and women. Sometimes a play-field is provided adjacent to the building and there also may be clubrooms for boys and girls. Funds to finance the various plans are secured from the Miners' Welfare Fund established by law in 1920. In 1943 there were 1,493 welfare centers of all types for miners in Great Britain.

Youth Services

In 1939 the British Board of Education undertook a direct responsibility for youth welfare. A National Youth Committee representative of wide interests was appointed followed by the organization of local committees composed of representatives of education authorities and voluntary organizations. The Board justified its action in the following words:

The social and physical development of boys and girls between the ages of 14 and 20, who have ceased full-time education, has for long been neglected in this country. In spite of the efforts of local education authorities and voluntary organizations, provision has always fallen short of the need and today considerably less than half of these boys and girls belong to any organization. In some parts of the country facilities for social and physical recreation are almost non-existent.¹²

The local youth committees' purpose was stated to be not the operation of youth activities, but "to strengthen the hands of local authorities and voluntary organizations." Local education authorities were authorized to provide staff, office accommodations and clerical assistance; to make grants where necessary for buildings rentals, salaries of full-time leaders, equipment and facility maintenance; and to provide leaders in specific interest fields such as craft and games and sports. Approved expenditures by education authorities became eligible for a fifty percent grant under the Education Act of 1921.

The Youth Service was generally concerned with those years between school-leaving and call-up for military service—fourteen to eighteen. During the war years, however, most of the youth in this group were members of armed services cadet organizations.

¹² *The Service of Youth*. London: Board of Education, Circular 1486, November 27, 1939.

The Sea Cadet Corps, the Army Cadet Force and the Air Training Corps and their auxiliaries absorbed the majority of youth. With the end of the war the proposals of the Youth Advisory Council appointed in 1942 by the president of the Board of Education became significant in relation to post-war youth service.

The Council recommended among other things that:

1. Youth be allowed to choose leisure activities from a variety of opportunities
2. Holiday facilities available throughout the year be provided for all under eighteen
3. Public grants be made to voluntary organizations and statutory authorities in respect to the cost of holiday facilities
4. As part of educational post-war reconstruction, facilities be provided for the country as a whole for educational, social and physical recreation
5. Voluntary organizations be strengthened financially and that extension of public grants to them be accompanied by some measure of public control
6. The general responsibility for post-war pre-service training organizations be transferred to education authorities with close cooperation maintained with military service departments

Voluntary youth organizations of a principal character in Great Britain include the Boys Brigade; Boy Scouts; Church Lads Brigade; Girl Guides; Girls Friendly Society; Girls Guildry; National Association of Boys Clubs; Association of Jewish Youth; Girls Life Brigade; National Council of Girls Clubs; Welsh League of Youth; Y.M.C.A.; Y.W.C.A.; and National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs. For many years these groups did almost all the youth work that was done. They accomplished much with little resources, financial or otherwise. The government recognized the importance of their work and decided to support them partly through public funds and accordingly in November, 1939, grants-in-aid were offered to voluntary organizations. The Youth Advisory Council recommended that in return for such assistance the voluntary bodies be asked to accept authority of the Board of Education to scrutinize financial statements, to submit to the Board periodic reports including audited headquarters accounts; and also to accept authority of the Board

and local education authorities who provided grants-in-aid to exercise informal inspection.

Leadership

Neither recreation, youth leadership nor adult education is established on a sound professional basis in Great Britain. Physical education fares little better. "There is no recognized qualification for a youth leader. Only a few courses are of such length and scope that they can be regarded as offering systematic training. These have in the past been provided by a few of the voluntary organizations, and they vary in duration from a few months to two and a half years."¹³ "No courses of training preparing specifically for the work of adult education are available."¹⁴ "There are comparatively few full-time teaching posts in this (adult education) form of education."¹⁵ "The number of fully trained teachers of physical education coming annually into the schools is only a little over 300. . . . One of the roots of the supply problem is the deficiency of the training provision. For men there are only two colleges each offering a year's course, and nearly all the expert training for women is provided by private enterprise."¹⁶ There are six specialist colleges for women physical education teachers, five private and one public. "The Ministry do not encourage men to qualify themselves for teaching physical training only and there are no courses recognized by them for this purpose."¹⁷

In keeping with the reorganization of education as outlined by the Education Act of 1944 the Board of Education appointed a committee to consider the supply, recruitment and training of teachers and youth leaders.¹⁸ The committee in its report placed great stress upon the importance of arts and crafts, music and

¹³ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*. London: Ministry of Education, H. M. Stationery Office, 1944, p. 96.

¹⁴ *Teaching as a Career*. London: Ministry of Education, H. M. Stationery Office, 1945, p. 10.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 7.

¹⁶ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 162.

¹⁷ *Teaching as a Career*, p. 19.

¹⁸ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*.

physical education in the scheme of education. The need for adequate training and remuneration for teachers in these fields was emphasized. Much consideration was also given to the need for youth leaders in leisure-time pursuits.

With reference to arts and crafts the committee among other things recommended that :

1. The course in the principles of education should include a section on the place and significance of arts and crafts in the education of children.
2. Every college should offer practical opportunities for students to develop their own talents.
3. Every teacher who intends to teach younger children should be equipped to use arts and crafts in the education of these children.¹⁹

Recommendations regarding training of music teachers were that :

1. All intending teachers of younger children should be trained to teach music up to the standards of simple melodies and rhythms in ordinary notation.
2. Lessons in some form of instrumental playing should be available without extra cost to all teachers in training.
3. Every training college should have an adequately equipped music room.²⁰

With regard to physical education the committee recommended that :

1. Provision for the training of men and women as specialists in physical education should be made within the national training service.
2. The existing recognized colleges of physical education should become part of the general system of training and participate in grant-aids.
3. Provision for the training of specialists be substantially increased.
4. In planning this program no training area should be left without an adequate centre of physical education within it.²¹

¹⁹ *Ibid.*

²⁰ *Ibid.*

²¹ *Ibid.*

A further recommendation related to arts and crafts, music and physical education teachers was that they should not be considered apart from other teachers in the matters of recognition, salary and eligibility for promotion to posts of special or administrative responsibility.

The committee recognized a difference between youth leaders and teachers. Leaders, it felt, should not enter full-time work below the age of twenty-three while twenty-one was acceptable as a beginning age for teachers. The profound difference between the psychological and social problems faced by the leader and the teacher was given as the reason for the age differentiation. The average working life of the youth leader was estimated at about fifteen or twenty years, considerably less than that of the teacher, particularly because of the heavy demands arising from the interests of youth in physical recreation. It was estimated that to secure an average of one full-time leader for every 300 boys between fifteen and eighteen years would require between 5,000 and 6,000 leaders and that an annual recruitment of 300 leaders would be necessary once the full program became established.

It was suggested that requirements in selection of persons to be trained for youth leadership include personal interview and a successful record of apprenticeship in some form of youth service, and that the training program itself should avoid the danger of neglecting the personal education and personal life of the trainee in favor of sole concentration on his professional preparation. The development of a personal philosophy of life; field training in youth programs; and experience in camping and other outdoor activities were felt to be essentials of a training program for professional youth leaders. The committee suggested that the youth leader adequately prepared should:

1. Have achieved, as a personal accomplishment, a fairly high standard in some field of knowledge or in some craft of his own choosing
2. Have acquired a good working knowledge of national and local government, social and industrial conditions and the social services with some reference to their historical development
3. Possess some understanding of the psychology of young people in relation to their personal health, their fellows of both

sexes, their homes and their working conditions, and in relation to adults and society at large

4. Have developed a genuine interest in and enjoyment of, one or more of the many activities in which young people freely engage, such as music, drama, crafts of all kinds, gymnastics, boxing, games and so on

5. Have had practical experience, if only as an apprentice during training, of actual work with young people, including what is involved in the organization and business management of groups, clubs or institutions²²

It was also recommended that the course of training should normally extend for a period of three years and that at least a quarter of it should be devoted to practical work.

The committee gave full recognition to the need for volunteer leaders in youth service and stated they are vital for three reasons:

1. They bring to young people a varied experience of contemporary life which full-time workers clearly cannot bring in the same measure.

2. Voluntary work carries with it the hall mark of altruistic interest and sets an example of unrewarded service which young people are quick to appreciate.

3. The work of volunteers is a safeguard against the over-professionalisation of the service.²³

SUGGESTED READINGS

A Practical Method for Coordinating Recreation in Small Communities. Winnipeg: Manitoba Department of Health and Public Welfare, Division of Physical Fitness, January, 1947.

Adeney, M. "Community Organization." *Canadian Forum*, October, 1945.

_____. and others. *Community Centres in Canada.* Toronto: Ryerson Press, 1945.

An Act to Promote the Cultural Development of Alberta. Edmonton: King's Printer, 1946.

Cameron, Donald. *Community Centres in Alberta.* Edmonton: University of Alberta, 1946.

Cook, William R. *Organizing the Community's Resources for Use of Leisure Time.* Ottawa: Canadian Welfare Council, 1935.

²² *Ibid.*

²³ *Ibid.*

- Community Centres.* London: Ministry of Education, 1944.
- "Community Councils in Canada." London: *Municipal Journal*. January 25, 1946.
- Education Bill Financial Memorandum.* London: Board of Education, 1944.
- Gloss, G. M. "Our Australian Neighbors." *Journal of Health and Physical Education*. June, 1947.
- Government Publications and Mimeographed Materials on Physical Fitness and Recreation.* Ottawa: National Council on Physical Fitness, March 10, 1948.
- Health and Recreation Branch.* Calgary: Alberta Department of Education, 1947.
- Information Bulletin on Community Centres.* Ottawa: Department of National Health and Welfare, Physical Fitness Division, April, 1947.
- Kidd, John P. *Community Centres.* Ottawa: Canadian Council of Education for Citizenship, 1945.
- Lasserre, Fred and Lunan, Gordon. *Community Centres.* Ottawa: Edmund Cloutier, 1945.
- Lazarus, Jeanne M. "Camping is a New Idea in British Schools." *Nations Schools*, June, 1949.
- Les Systèmes Britanniques et Français D'Education. (The British and French Systems of Education.) London: *Entente*, September, October, 1943.
- Museums and Gymnasiums Act.* 1891. London: Eyre and Spottiswoode.
- Physical Training and Recreation Act.* London: Board of Education, 1937.
- Recreation and Leisure Time Services in Canada.* Ottawa: Canadian Welfare Council, 1936.
- Recreation in Cities of Less Than Ten Thousand and in Rural Districts.* Ottawa: Canadian Welfare Council, 1933.
- Recreation in Cities of Ten Thousand to One Hundred Thousand.* Ottawa: Canadian Welfare Council, 1933.
- Regulations, Physical Fitness and Recreation.* Ottawa: Ministry of Education, 1945.
- Ross, Murray G. *Community Councils.* Ottawa: Canadian Council of Education for Citizenship, 1945.
- Snowden, John. "British Boys Clubs." *Youth Leaders Digest*, April, 1947.
- Sources of Training in Canada for Leadership in the Recreation Field.* Ottawa: The Canadian Welfare Council, 1946.

- Stumpf, Florence and Couzens, Frederick W. "Hidden Possibilities for Research in Physical Education and Recreation." *The Research Quarterly*, May, 1947.
- Teachers and Youth Leaders*. London: Ministry of Education, H. M. Stationery Office, 1944.
- The Community Can Do It*. Sydney: Australian Broadcasting Co., 1945.
- The Functions of the Local Community, Provincial Government and the Federal Government in the Fitness and Recreation Program*. Ottawa: National Council on Physical Fitness, Information Bulletin, March 3, 1948.
- The Purpose and Content of the Youth Service*. London: Board of Education, 1945.
- The Recreation Review*. Parks and Recreation Association of Canada, Niagara Falls, Ontario, March, 1947, July, 1947.
- The Service of Youth*. London: Board of Education, Circular 1486, November 27, 1939.
- The Youth Service After the War*. London: Board of Education, 1943.
- Village Halls and Social Centres in the Countryside*. London: The National Council of Social Service, Inc., 1945.
- Weir, L. H. *Europe at Play*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1937.
- Youth and Recreation*. Canadian Youth Commission, Toronto: Ryerson Press, 1946.
- Youth Organization in Canada*. Canadian Youth Commission, Toronto: Ryerson Press, 1946.

Index ~

- Accreditation of colleges, 308
Addams, Jane, 56
Advisory councils, see community councils
Alabama, recreation law, 212
Alberta, Cultural Development Act, 328
American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 130, 163, 166, 168, 305, 311
American Association of Group Workers, 130, 166, 168
American Association of School Administrators, 185
American Camping Association, 167
American Federation of Labor, 141, 163
American Institute of Park Executives, 165, 310
American Legion, 96, 125, 129, 215, 284
American Recreation Society, 42, 75, 130, 155, 163, 165, 168, 312
American Red Cross, 59, 69, 70, 71, 74, 113, 304, 311
Army Corps of Engineers, 159
Army Special Service Division, 70, 304
Association for the Study of Community Organization, 50
Associated Youth Serving Organizations, 163, 168, 301
Athletic Institute, The, 112, 143, 162, 164, 185, 311
Australia, recreation in, 323-324
- Barnard, Henry, 179
Battle Creek, 193
Beam, Kenneth, 91
Benjamin Rose Institute, 114
Berkeley, California, 90
Big Brothers, 48
Big Sisters, 48
Boards, citizen, 217; advantages and disadvantages of, 220
qualifications of members, 289
Boston, 26, 27, 29, 48, 57
Boy Scouts, 30, 40, 80
Boys Clubs, National Association of, 30, 301
- Braucher, Howard, cited, 170
Bruce, William C., 183
Burns, Allen T. and Bradley, Buell, cited, 17
- California, 29
Committee for the Study of Recreation, 136, 139, 312
Conference of Social Work, 53
coordinating councils, 90
Department of Public Instruction, 149
leadership training project, 312
Recreation Commission, 137-139, 143, 313
Youth Authority, 140, 149
Youth Committee, 136, 150
Camp Fire Girls, 30, 80, 301
Camping, school, 192
Campus recreation, 200
Canada,
federal grants, 326
national physical fitness and recreation act, 325
recreation in, 325-330
Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, 179
Certification of recreation personnel, 308-309
Charity organization movement, 48
Chairman of community coordinating council, qualification of, 286-287
Chicago, 28, 56, 58, 66, 156
Chicago Park District, 233
Chicago Recreation Commission, 103-105, 111
Cincinnati, 29, 66, 219
Cities, types of government and recreation, 216-217
City-manager form of local government, 217
City-county relationships, 227
Cleveland Welfare Federation, 83, 84
Colleges and universities, place in recreation, 198
College conferences on professional recreation training, 311
College recreation educators proposed society, 167

- Collier, John, 63
 Colt, Dr. Stanton, 56
 Commercial agencies, definition of, 21
 Commission, first playground, 29
 Commission form of local government, 216-217
 Communism, 40-41
 Community, definition of, 19
 Community center, the movement, 57
 contributions to community organization, 66
 Community chests, first established, 66
 Community Chests and Councils, Incorporated, 16, 162
 Community councils, 90
 Cleveland, 83, 84
 history of, 90
 in California, 90-91
 in Michigan, 92-93
 Minneapolis, 82
 neighborhood, 94
 professional guidance, 111
 Sacramento Conference on, 94
 state-wide, 123
 types and purposes of, 92
 WPA, 67, 68; and World Wars I and II, 73
 Community leadership, 282-322; some factors in, 296
 education for, 297
 Community meeting, the, 292
 chairman of, 294
 suggestions for, 293
 Community organization, backgrounds, 47-78
 as an end, 51
 definition of, 22
 distinct periods of, 49-50
 faulty thinking in, 52
 from 1920-1930, 66
 in depression period, 67
 nature of, 50; as a process, 51
 purposes and outcomes of, 53
 Community organization for recreation, definition of, 22
 and federal government, 70
 and first World War, 64
 and second World War, 69
 early history of, 55
 fallacies to avoid, 43
 national scale, 67
 on international level, 42
 period following World War I, 65
 post war developments in, 75
 WPA contributions, 68
 Community recreation, concept of, 13-23; definition of, 14
 Community recreation resources, definition of, 21
 Community relationships, and the local public recreation authority, 234-235
 Community Surveys Associates, 161, 258
 Complexity of modern life, 38
 Conference of National Agencies and Schools of Group Work and Recreation, 302
 Congress of Industrial Organizations, 163
 Consultant service, recreation, 75, 142, 144, 146, 153
 Cooperation between public and private agencies, 85-88, 168
 Coordinating council members, qualifications of, 287, 288
 Coordination of recreation, on local level, 79-119
 on national level, 153-173
 on state level, 120-153
 Council of Chief State School Officers, 194
 Councils of social agencies, first established, 88
 as a coordinating agency, 80-85
 definition of, 108
 in Baltimore, 80
 in Minneapolis, 81
 relationships with public agencies, 88
 Counties, 220
 intergovernmental relations, 228
 recreation systems, 221-227
 Country Life Association, 65
 C.Y.O., 80

 Dewey, John, 57
 Districts, special recreation and park, 232-234

 Early American concepts of recreation, 24, 25
 Economic conditions and leisure, 37
 Education, for leisure, 177-182
 Educational Policies Commission, 187
 Eighth Air Force Fighter Command, 71
 Elliott, Charles W., 57
 English, poor laws, 47-48
 Eppley, Garrett, cited, 134
 Essex County, New Jersey, 27
 Everley, Robert, cited, 310

- Expenditures, private agencies versus public, 15
average for health, welfare and recreation, 109
- Facilities, combined planning of, 185, 241
Fallacies, to avoid in community organization for recreation, 43
Family Welfare Association, 49, 65
Farmers' Union, 49
Federal grants, in Canada, 325
Federal Inter-agency Recreation Committee, 76, 159, 160
Federal recreation service proposed, 75, 154
Federal Security Agency, Office of Community War Services, 72, 168
Recreation Division, 75, 112, 123, 143, 154
Fees and charges, 238
Financial support of local public recreation, 237
Finley, Dr. John H., 60
First College Conference on Training Recreation Leaders, 68, 303
Fish and Wildlife Service, 154, 158, 159
Florida, recreation law, 213
Forms of local government, 216-219
Fosdick, Raymond D., 69
- Girl Scouts, 30, 301
Gove, Aaron, 57
Government, description of, 206
Governmental agency, definition of, 20
Grange, the, 49, 65, 125
Great Britain, 48
British Association of Resident Settlements, 335
community centers, 333-334
Education Act of 1921, 331; of 1944, 332
Educational Settlement Association, 335
leadership in recreation, 340-343
Miners' Welfare Commission, 334
Museums and Gymnasiums Act, 330
National Council of Social Service, 334-335
organization for recreation in, 330-343
Physical Training and Recreation Act of 1937, 331
voluntary youth organizations, 339
Great Lakes Park Training Institute, 313
- Group work and recreation, division of Minneapolis Council of Social Agencies, purpose of, 81
Guidance in recreation, 115
- Haislet, E. L., cited, 225
Handicapped, recreation for, 114
Hayward Park, Recreation and Parkway District, 232
Hjelte, George, cited, 310
Hospital recreation, 113
Hours of work, release of, 30
House of Representatives Bill 5273, 42, 75, 155
Hull House, 56
- Illinois, park districts, 233
Indiana, 133, 214, 226
Indiana University, 75, 307, 313
Industrial Recreation Association, 167
Industrial recreation, 111
In-service training, 312-314
Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare, 159
International aspects of recreation, 41-42
International Ladies' Garment Workers Union, 163
International Recreation Congress, 42
Iowa, steps toward formation of state recreation program, 142
- Jefferson County, Kentucky recreation program, 223
Juvenile delinquency, and recreation, 32
- Kentucky, state recreation department, 141
Youth Guidance Commission, 151
Kiwanis Club, 30, 96
- Labor unions, 141, 163
Leadership, definition of, 282
sources of, 283
through community organizations, 283-284
through individuals, 285
Legislation, state enabling, 211-216
Leisure, and recreation, 31
dangers to, 40
essence of, 34
factors affecting, 35
increase of, 36

- Leisure, opportunities for all, 39
release of hours, 30
- Leuenberger, Walter A., cited, 109
- Life Camps, Incorporated, 194
- Lindeman, Eduard C., cited, 31, 33
- Lions Club, 30, 96
- Local community organization for recreation, 79-119
- Local governmental structure and recreation, 216
- Local public recreation authority, 206-248
- Long Beach, 193
- Los Angeles, 28, 29, 42, 189-190, 227
- Marion County, West Virginia, 224
- Massachusetts, Emergency and Hygiene Association, 26
- Mayor-council form of local government, 217
- Maxim, Marion, cited, 311
- Medical recreation workers, training for, 311
- Mental health for leaders, 291-292
- Milwaukee County park system, 224
- Minnesota Governor's Advisory Committee on Recreation, 129-133
- Minnesota recreation law, 215, 229, 231-232
- Minnesota Youth Conservation Commission, 150
number of recreation departments, 209
- Missouri, Division of Resources and Development, recreation department, 141, 216
- Monongalia County, West Virginia, 224
- Multi-State Conferences, 142
- McCloskey, Mark A., cited, 197
- National Catholic Community Service, 69
- National Community Center Association, 60, 66; National Conference of, 65
- National Conference of Social Work, 48, 50
- National Conference on State Parks, 167
- National Conference on Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Health and Physical Education, 164, 173
- National Conference on Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency, 110, 171, 201
- National Conferences on professional training, 173, 311
- National Conference on Undergraduate Professional Preparation in Health Education, Physical Education and Recreation, 173, 304, 311, 312
- National Education Association, 57, 63, 179, 183
- National Education-Recreation Council, 168, 170
- National Federation of Settlements, 48, 56
- National Housing Agency, 159
- National Jewish Welfare Board, 69, 301
- National level coordination, 154
- National Park Service, 154, 155, 159
- National Probation Association, 48
- National Recreation Association, 29, 48, 62, 63, 66, 68, 72, 111, 123, 155, 160, 185, 239, 258, 303, 304, 305, 312
- National Recreation Policies Committee, 165, 171
- National Social Welfare Assembly, 78, 163-164, 168, 170, 302
- National Travelers' Aid Association, 69
- National Tuberculosis Association, 48
- Nebraska, plans for state recreation, 141
- New Hampshire, recreation division, 141
- New York City, 26, 27, 29, 48, 66
- New York State, 147; Youth Commission, 151
- New Zealand, 48, 324
- Nordly, Carl L., cited, 192
- North Carolina, Recreation Commission, 125-129, 143
- Oakland, 29, 219
- Ohio, recreation law, 215
- Older people, recreation for, 113
- Parks and recreation, authority, combined, 210; districts, 232-233
- Park executives, training for, 309-310
- Parks, expansion of, 26
park recreation movement, 29
use concept, 28
- Pennsylvania, state planning board, 124, 146
- People's Institute of New York, 63, 303
- Perry, C. A., 58
- Philadelphia, 26, 48

- Physical education, 26, 189
Pittsburgh, 53, 57, 58, 66, 88
Playground and Recreation Association of America, see National Recreation Association
Principles of community organization for recreation, 268-281
Private agencies, 17; definition of, 20; relationships, 85-88, 168
Professional community council executives, qualifications of, 290-291
California Association of, 111
Professional education for recreation, 68
accreditation, 308-309
administrative setting, 305-307
current issues, 315-317
graduate level, 311
historical background in recreation, 303-304
in group work, 299-303
in-service, 312-313
national conferences, 311
P.T.A., 17, 80, 96, 125
Public opinion polls, 256
Public recreation authority, definition of, 22
Public recreation, definition of, 14; and community recreation, 14

Recreation, battles won, 33; and social values, 34
commission, 28-29, 219
consultant services, 75, 142, 144, 146, 153
definition of, 32
justification as a governmental service, 39
placement of state responsibilities, 143, 144
program, 44
responsibility for, 79-80
rise of provision for, 26-31
state services, 153
Recreation administration, administrative forms, 207-208
facilities, 240-242
financial support, 237
leadership, 239
legal provision, 211, 236
local public, 206-248
program, 242-243, and the future, 244
Recreation advisory councils, 95-109
Recreation authority, schools as the, 186; local public, 206-248
Recreation survey, 249-267
objectives, 251
organization procedures, 259-260
Recreation survey, personnel, 257-258
preparation of forms, 260
purpose, 250
scope and content, 253-257
survey report, the, 263-264
types, 251-253
planning, 257
techniques, 261-262
Recreation, twenty point platform, 169
Regional recreation study groups, 162
Relationships, public and private agencies, 85-88, 168
Responsibilities for recreation, 79, 80
state acceptance of in recreation, 121
Rochester, New York, 27, 29, 57, 63
Romney, G. Ott, cited, 31
Rotary Club, 30, 96
Rural community organizations, 49
Rural recreation, see counties
Russell Sage Foundation, 304

Salvation Army, the, 69
San Diego, 193
San Francisco, 26, 57; board of education, 188
Saskatchewan, physical fitness and recreation council, 326-327
Schindler, Annemarie, cited, 300
Schools, and camping, 192
a primary recreation agency, 178
and community advisory councils, 196
and community organization, 177-205
as a recreation authority, 186
comparison of recreation law and school law in Minnesota, 229-230
for recreation, 182
major functions in leisure and recreation, 177
state aid for recreation, 196
state departments of education, 194
use of properties, 183
Selection of professional recreation students, 306
Senate Bill 2070 and 1229, 75, 155
Settlement house, the, in America, 56
in England, 55-56
Social setting of leisure and recreation, 24-46
Specialist, recreation, 140
Starr, Ellen Gates, 56
State and national community organization for recreation, 120-176
State level coordination, 120

- State, professional recreation associations, 148
 professional welfare associations, 148
 recreation authorities, function of, 146
 youth commissions, 75, 149
- Summary of recreation services, 153
 aid to local communities in recreation, 134, 136, 147, 151
 inter-agency recreation committees, 142
 placement of responsibility for recreation, 143, 144
 recreation board or commission, 75
- St. Louis, 29, 66
- St. Paul Playground Council, 102, 156
- St. Paul Volunteer Bureau Incorporated, 315
- Studebaker, John S., 193
- Suggestions to leaders, 295
- Summer recreation programs, 210
- Technology, 35
- The Community Center*, 50, 60
- Union County, New Jersey, 224
- University of California at Berkeley, 307
- University of Connecticut, 144
- University of Illinois, 144
- University of Minnesota, 75, 144, 200, 303, 304, 306
- University of North Carolina, 2, 305
- University of Wisconsin, 57, 58, 75, 144, 307
- U.S. Children's Bureau, 48, 154, 156, 159
- U.S. Department of Agriculture, Extension Service, 49, 154, 157, 159, 222
 Forest Service, 154, 158, 159
 4-H Clubs, 49, 80, 158, 199, 222
- U.S. Department of Labor, 63
- U.S. Office of Education, 59, 63, 65, 154, 157, 159
- U.S.O., 17, 69, 70, 71, 74, 163, 168, 304
- Utah recreation law, 213
- Vermont, Recreation board, 140, 143
- Veterans Administration, 113, 159
- Veterans of Foreign Wars, 96
- Veterans' organizations, 80, 215
- Voluntary groups, 17
 definition of, 21, 69
- Volunteer leadership, 298-299
- War Camp Community Recreation Service, 62, 66, 303
- War memorials, 76
 in Canada, 328
- Ward, E. J., 27, 63
- Washington, state of,
 state aid to local communities, 136, 147
 survey, 135
- Weir, L. H., cited, 26, 29, 44, 218, 219, 304
- Welfare Council of New York City, 301
- Westchester County, New York Recreation Commission, 222
- West Allis, Wisconsin, 232
- Wilson, Woodrow, 58, 61, 62
- Wisconsin, 57, 63
 recreation association, 135, 226
 recreation council, 135, 222
 state A.F. of L, 141, 163
 state planning board, 24
- Woman's Foundation, the, 161
- World War I, 30, 59, 63
 state defense councils
- World War II, 31, 50, 69
- Worthy use of leisure, 179
- W.P.A., 63, 67, 154, 303
- Wrenn, C. Gilbert and Harley, D. L., cited, 17
- Yellowstone Park, 27
- Y.M.C.A., 26, 27, 69, 87, 301
- Y.M.H.A., 80
- Y.W.C.A., 30, 69, 80, 87, 301
- Youth commissions, 75, 149-151
- Youth Division, National Social Welfare Assembly, 170, 301

Date Due

~~NEW BOOK~~

AP 20 '54

MR 9 '55

MAY 2018

153

FEB 19 '68

MAX S-04

~~FACULTY~~



GV53 .F55
Community organization for recreation

Princeton Theological Seminary-Speer Library



1 1012 00137 8373